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NOTES.

What a pity the whole world, or the whole political world, or even the whole Liberal party (now not a very considerable item), cannot be as sane as Lord Kimberley! Peace should be favoured, but war may be necessary. Imperial expansion is inevitable; but this expansion must be kept in bounds. We must be firm to our neighbours, but that need not prevent our being courteous to them—nor least so to the French. All this is sanity itself, irreproachably sane, almost in the sense in which platitudes are sane. On the peace crusade, and on the American alliance, Lord Kimberley's sanity may well be taken as a model by colleagues and opponents alike. How unfortunate, and yet how natural, that this sanity should desert our "goodnatured man" when he comes to theology! The sensible man of the world suddenly becomes a violent zealot, unable to see any side but his own, and ready to follow in the steps of the furious Sir William Harcourt. Still, we are grateful to Lord Kimberley for his speech.

By setting up machinery for the federation of organised labour, the Trades Unions have taken a great step—forward, they will say whom it most concerns, as also the serious student of social problems; the bulk of the middle classes will say, backward. In our view but one consideration need give serious pause to contentment at the move. It brings a universal strike within the region of the possible, or at any rate of the conceivable. But, weighing the executive difficulties of such a plan, the utter ruin which its failure and the extreme unpopularity which its success would entail on the whole body of organised labour, the prospect does not appear to us to be seriously alarming. On the other hand, against this set-off are to be placed very definite advantages. Federation will make sporadic and vexatious strikes less easy. No fair-minded person can have followed the discussions during this interim Trades Congress without seeing that one of the things the delegates were most concerned about was the curtailment of petty strikes and disputes. Then federation will finally bring home to the world the fact that capital and labour meet, in respect of the conditions of relationship, as equal parties. It must ultimately provoke employers to equally effective combination; and then encounters on either side will be felt to be something far too serious to enter upon with a light heart. Hence fewer strikes and ultimately a more excellent way.

A sense of humour sometimes saves people who have no sense of dignity. We should think that the rank and file of the Radical party will hardly repeat the farce at the National Liberal Club, after the open ridicule with which even their own organs treated it. Sir Robert Reid was in favour of a strong navy, but no territorial expansion, "unless absolutely driven to it" (a saving clause which may mean anything), and Home Rule all round. Mr. Labouchere, as we anticipated, is a staunch Morleyite, and alluded to the Capeto-Cairo railway as "a lunatic's dream," a description which evoked a hubbub of dissent. Lord Coleridge went for Mr. Morley and Mr. Labouchere, whose arguments he dismissed as "childish." Mr. Mark Napier pleasantly observed that the members of the Club were all Jingoes, and "tied to the tail of the Tory triumphal car," while Mr. Lloyd George was "in favour of a strong navy as a protection from militarism"! Mr. Morley must obviously begin by instructing his Welsh supporters in the English language.

The wonder is that among the many young and able men in the Radical party, some individual of commanding character does not step forth and dictate his will to this disorderly crew of squabblers. But the difficulty of the Radicals does not end with the want of a leader and a policy; they are embarrassed by an equally serious want, the want of funds. They have little money in the war chest, and it is difficult for them to get any; for what prospect have they of being in office for another ten years? and even if they had prospects, how can they with any decency promise peerages? This, with the leader dilemma, explains the shortage of Radical candidates who will pay their own expenses. Mr. Holburn's death creates a vacancy in North-West Lanarkshire, and as he only beat Mr. G. A. Whitelaw by 97 votes, that gentleman ought to recover the seat.

Mr. Rhodes has no reason to complain of the tone of Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour's reception of his proposals. But proposals affecting the finance of the country are in the disposition not of the Prime Minister, but of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach is dour in his stewardship of the bag. Is he likely to favour any scheme which sets a precedent, which might one way or another lead to charges on future generations of taxpayers? It is known that Sir Michael believes in very long financial views. He is, indeed, a vigorous Imperialist—we must not say a Jingo—but if the interests of empire clash with those of the till, we would rather back the till to win under the present Chancellor of the Exchequer. Anyway, with him the decision lies.

Newfoundland is the only one of our North American Colonies which has obstinately refused to come into the Dominion of Canada. Had it done so, it would have escaped the clutches of Mr. R. G. Reid, railway contractor, into whose net it has been drawn by financial embarrassment. Newfoundland has a population of 200,000 souls, a representative Assembly of 36 members, a Legislative Council (or Upper House), and a Governor. About a year ago, 31 of the elected members, the Legislative Council, and the Governor assented to a Bill embodying a contract with this Mr. R. G. Reid, whereby all the railway docks, telegraphs, and steam service of the Colony were transferred to him, "with new and liberal grants of public land," in consideration of cash down.

Now that the deed is done, the colonists are running to Mr. Chamberlain to protect them from the consequences of their own folly, or that of their representatives. Petitions, said to be signed by a majority of the electors, have been forwarded to Mr. Chamberlain, praying him to use his prerogative of disallowing the Bill. And no one backs up these petitions more strenuously than the Governor, who, in the name of Her Majesty, assented to the Bill. Sir H. H. Murray says in effect that all the valuable assets of the Colony have been sold, without any authority from, or notice to, the electorate, that most of the debt out of the proceeds of which those assets were created has been left as a weight round the neck of the Colony, and that the Bill was rushed through a Legislature new to its work by dubious methods.

Mr. Chamberlain admits that the contract is of an "extraordinary and unparalleled character," but declines to disallow it, on the ground that Newfoundland is a self-governing Colony, and that the Act is not ultra vires. That is all very well, but for what purpose is the Imperial veto vested in the Secretary of State? Surely to disallow Colonial Acts that are contrary to public policy. Suppose a Colonial Parliament passed an Act to permit polygamy! This Act of the Newfoundland Legislature looks very like a breach of public faith, for it suddenly withdraws from the creditors of the Colony their chief security. The person, however, most to blame is the Governor; for if he thinks of the Act as he writes, he might have withheld the Queen's Assent in the first instance, and so have forced his Ministers to consult the electorate by a dissolution.

Perhaps the most unfortunate gibe perpetrated by Mr. Chamberlain was his reference to lobsters. Any naturalist, he said, could tell the French that lobsters are not fish. The gibe was unfortunate in the spirit it revealed; to the speaker it was disastrous, since its pedantry suggested the worst of college associations, and so accentuated the absence of the better ones. The point is historically false, for until quite recently, even now, except among the pedantically correct, lobsters, like oysters and mussels, were commonly called shell-fish. It is actually incorrect, for although lobsters belong to the class crustacea, oysters to the class mollusca, cod to the class pisces, seals to the class mammalia, we talk of lobster fisheries, pearl fisheries, and seal fisheries, as well as cod or herring fishery.

The appointment of Lord Beauchamp to the Governor-Generalship of New South Wales is harder on that important Colony than on the London School Board; the only field in which the new Governor has had experience of public life. In the House of Lords he is unknown. He has been once Mayor of Worcester. He calls himself a Conservative, and poses as a Progressive. That is his record. True, he is too young to have a record; which may be an excuse, but will hardly be a consolation to the colonists. Why this appointment? Does Mr. Chamberlain think that the qualification of brotherhood-in-law to his private secretary is important enough to justify his planting on New South Wales a young man without a record, without experience, without a wife, of whom the best that can be said is that "he is harmless and good on the whole, but rather pompous"?

The issue of the official text of the Muravieff Circular neither enlarges nor modifies our knowledge as to the definite proposals of the Russian Government, but it contains a significant "rider" to the effect that "all questions concerning the political relations of States and the order of things established by Treaties . . . must be absolutely excluded." It is not difficult to understand that, with the Treaty of Frankfort in view, the French papers are not treating the Circular with much detail—in fact, they are significantly reticent on the matter. Our crusaders may also note that their zeal is beginning to awake considerable surprise, if not suspicion, in Russia, who is vigorously pushing on the railway towards Herat. The total net result at present is considerable friction between Russia, Italy, and the Vatican.

The statement of the Vienna Correspondent of the "Cologne Gazette" that the Tsar and the Emperor Francis Joseph have joined in "damping" the Macedonian movement seems confirmed by the semi-official news from Constantinople that "Russia has informed the Powers that she is not disposed to make representations to the Porte in favour of reforms in Macedonia." In other words, she recognises that the dangers involved in showing any encouragement to the projected rising next spring are greater than any possible benefit that could ensue to the Slav cause in the Balkans. Though the strenuous appeal made by the Macedonian Committee to the Powers can hardly be ignored, if Russia and Austria say that the rising is not to take place, the danger is appreciably lessened. Macedonia alone, with its jumble of nationalities, could make no kind of stand against Turkey.

Aguinaldo's authority in the Philippines appears to be rapidly growing: the disbanded native regiments of Spain have answered his call; 50,000 Filipinos are under arms at Malolos, with about 50 Maxims in their possession; and military depôts have been established at various centres. An attack on the American position at Manila may begin at any moment, for the Filipinos are well aware that their only hope of success—at Washington as well as in the Philippines—is to strike hard at once. They treat with contemptuous suspicion President McKinley's appointment of an American Commission to visit and report on the situation. Representations have been made to the Spanish Government and the Vatican in order to secure recognition; while delegates have arrived at Washington from the Philippines to expound their Declaration of Rights. So far, the President has declined to receive this deputation. The situation is aggravated by the two important considerations that Congress is not likely to ratify the Treaty of Paris without considerable amendment, and that the anti-imperialist movement in America is gaining ground every day. It would be a curious stroke of irony if the first effort made by America in colonisation were to suppress the "embattled farmers" of the Philippines.

The new Irish Borough Councils held their first meeting on Monday, and the result was a still further fluttering of the dovecotes, the new members insisting on choosing their own men for the elective posts, and openly flouting the party wirepullers. The Dublin Parnellites were soundly beaten in two divisions when they attempted to capture the office of High Sheriff for Mr. Willie Redmond, M.P., Alderman Senehan—a little known man, not a professional politician—being elected by the combined Tory and Labour vote. In general, the "machine" politicians who have held Ireland in their grip since the palmy days of the Land League have been rudely shaken. The really interesting struggle will take place over the County Councils in March, when we shall see whether Mr. O'Brien and Mr. Dillon are more successful in their effort to prevent the farmers and labourers from thinking and choosing for themselves.

Most of us seem to be very angry with the French for spoiling our trade in Madagascar. No one seems to have considered that we have much greater reason to be angry with the United States, who have done far more injury to our trade than France could do, if she prohibited the entry of our goods into all her Colonial possessions combined. The course of those ancient and great staple trades which now centre in Bradford sufficiently illustrates our point. The export from the Bradford Consular District to the United States of stuffs

and worsted coatings was valued, in 1889, before the first McKinley Act, at £3,096,369; under the first McKinley Act, 1891, the value dropped to £1,579,687; under the moderate Wilson Tariff they improved, and we find £3,762,408 as the figure representing these exports in 1895. Compare that sum with the amount realised last year under the Dingley Tariff—namely, £603,198. Nor is it only in stuffs and worsted coatings that Bradford has been deprived of the American market. The total exports to the United States from the Bradford Consular District were worth £5,697,145 in 1895, and only £1,381,803 in 1898. It is straining at a gnat and swallowing a camel to preach effusive affection for the United States, and at the same time breathe threatenings and slaughter against the Continental nations for erecting barriers against our merchandise.

No industry in the United Kingdom did so well last year as shipbuilding—1898 was the best year ship-builders have ever had. The total output reached 1,367,570 tons of merchant vessels, and 191,555 tons of warships—a gross total output of 1,559,125 tons, against 1,047,951 tons in 1897. But as 1897 was the year of the disastrous engineers' strike, it is hardly fair to compare 1898 with 1897; but if we compare 1898 with 1896, we find that last year advanced on 1896 by 235,000 tons. In respect to mercantile tonnage 1889 held the record until last year, with an output of 1,209,361 tons; 1898 cut that record by 158,000 tons; its warship building exceeded that of 1889 by 150,000 tons. The outlook for 1899 is equally promising. Indeed, the year opened with even brighter prospects than did 1898. On the 1st of this month there were under construction in our yards a total merchant tonnage of 1,401,087 tons, as against 1,013,319 tons on 1st January last year. There are also under construction at the present time nineteen warships, of 157,140 tons displacement, at the Royal Dockyards, and seventytwo warships, aggregating 253,845 tons, at private yards.

There is a twofold use in calling attention to this outburst of shipbuilding activity. It is well to congratulate ourselves sometimes; and the present condition of our great shipbuilding trades affords adequate excuse for self-gratulation. There is also another use in recalling these statistics; they serve to explain a great deal of the healthy activity in trade generally. Not only have the shippards consumed great quantities of iron and steel, so helping the iron and steel trades, and preventing them from feeling the loss of the export market; but the sums spent in wages have promoted activity in innumerable other trades. This explanation carries with it a warning. No reasonable man can suppose that this sudden efflorescence of new crafts is going to be kept up for long at the same pace; we must, therefore, not reckon upon it too heavily as a permanent industrial feature. This note of warning gains added force when we consider the progress of foreign shipbuilding. We are far and away ahead of all our competitors at present, it is true, but they are creeping up. They are adopting those same bounty methods which helped to establish our shipbuilding supremacy.

Last year appears, from the preliminary reports that are available, to have seen a considerable increase in the output of silver throughout the world. The conditions as affecting this metal were by no means ideal, but they were at least better than in the preceding twelve months, and it needs only a very little encouragement to induce increased activity. As a result of the better average prices, we find the United States raising its production to about 64,000,000 oz., or more than 10,000,000 oz. increase on 1897. Mexico, the other leading silver mining country, is credited with a round 58,000,000 oz., Australasia and Bolivia with something like 17,000,000 oz. each, and Peru with over 10,000,000 oz.; while Canada (thanks to the progress of the Kootenay region), Spain and Chili all show, or are expected to show when the final figures are available, an increased yield. The world's total may be put down at an excess of 200,000,000 oz., which compares with 183,000,000 oz. for the previous year, and 108,800,000 oz. ten years ago.

The protest against Erastianism has been curiously blended with the agitation against Ritualism in Liverpool, where two curates of St. Agnes' Church have disobeyed their vicar because he is too complaisant to the munificent layman who built his church. The form of disobedience was an excessive insistence on confession from the pulpit, thus bringing on their luckless chief the anger of the local Protestants. The curates departed in due course, and then another element of confusion appeared on the scene in the person of a neighbouring incumbent, who, in a long and excited epistle, hailed them as martyrs, and invited them to join his staff. The whole episode is curious in the extreme, and not without touches of comedy which relieve the situation. It seems sufficiently plain that on both sides men have lost their heads in Liverpool.

English solicitors are finding out to their horror that there are actually countries, like Germany, Russia, Spain, and Scotland, where legal proceedings can be carried on without interminable affidavits, and commissioners to take oaths at every step. England is the most affidavit-ridden country in the world. See how this absurd affidavit superstition works in one particular An English plaintiff finds he must have the notice of the writ which he has issued here against a defendant, say in Germany, served by an official of the German law-court. This official is not allowed to make an affidavit of having served it, but he makes a certificate under his official seal, which is not considered evidence at all in itself, and it is only by incurring the expense of making the sacred affidavit himself, amongst other things, that the plaintiff may possibly get our Courts to accept the German certificate. If the ridiculous and oppressive affidavit-mongering system were swept away, one of the most fertile sources of law costs would be swept away with it.

Cases are accumulating to strengthen the demand for a Court of Criminal Appeal. The latest is that of the woman Kate Marshall, who was convicted recently for the murder of her sister, and now lies under sentence of death. It is said that the verdict really only amounted to manslaughter, and not murder; but the Court cannot issue any process to allow of this question being tried. "We cannot be made a Court of Criminal Appeal," said the Divisional Court, "and we have no jurisdiction over a brother Judge." So that for mistakes of judges or juries there is no remedy except the prerogative of the Crown, outside the ordinary course of the law, if a person really only guilty of manslaughter is not to be hanged for murder. There is the further absurdity that if the mistake were a merely formal one, and not substantial, there would be a remedy by writ of error, an antiquated and expensive proceeding.

What is lighting-up time for a cyclist? One hour after sunset—every rider knows that. Yes; but what does that phrase mean? Various magistrates have, unfortunately for the tourist, varying and vague opinions about it. Is sunset, geometrical sunset, when the sun's centre is ninety degrees from the zenith, or when the first part of the sun disappears, or the last part, or when the centre appears to drop below the horizon? Again, is the time of sunset to be taken locally, or by Greenwich time? The British Bench adopted the latter view, and the Cyclists' Touring Club brought up the case last Thursday for the decision of the High Court. The conviction was quashed, and local time is therefore the rule; but what sunset means is still unsettled.

The birth-rate per thousand in the United Kingdom has recently stood at about 29 per thousand; that in France about 22. If, however, we turn to the two stocks in Canada, the proportions are reversed. According to the last Canadian "Statistical Year-Book" the birth-rate in the Province of Quebec, where the vast majority of the population is of true French descent, is at the rate of about 37 per thousand. Few civilised countries have a higher birth-rate than this. But in the adjoining Province of Ontario, in which the population is mostly of British descent, the birth-rate is only about 24 per thousand, not much higher than that in France. This contrast seems to show that "shyness in breeding" is not a special characteristic of the French.

The report of the Signalling Inspector regarding corps stationed at home and in the Colonies shows satisfactory results. This is a matter of some importance to Great Britain; for, though the value of visual signalling in European operations is open to doubt, there can be no question as to its utility in savage warfare, as the Tirah and Sudan reports testify. The Inspector of Tirah and Sudan reports testify. The Inspector of Signalling, or, as he is now, the D.A.A.G. for Signalling, is perhaps rather too sanguine as to the results obtainable from the heliograph in this country. The manipulation of the instrument, he contends, can be acquired by practice, even without the presence of the sun. No doubt this is true, but the heliograph without the sun is like a story without its hero; and it is a necessarily difficult task to get unimaginative men to interest themselves in work so largely dependent on the imagi-

In the discussion which followed Captain Mead's lecture on musketry training at the United Service Institution, some interesting points were raised. One was a proposal that the Staff College and the Hythe School of Musketry should work more in unison, and that a knowledge of musketry should be just as much part of a staff officer's qualifications as a knowledge of tactics itself; while the possession of a Staff College certificate should be as much a claim to a musketry as to any other staff appointment. In con-clusion, the Chairman remarked that he hoped to see the day come when a commanding officer would be allowed a hand in the musketry training of his battalion, as free as he has in tactical training. in the British army, has he always a free hand in the latter respect?

The Duke of Devonshire has a way of getting to the heart of a subject, apparently in spite of himself. To hear him talk, whether in public or private, one would think he was bored to death with a subject he did not know very much about. But reflection on what he actually said generally shows that he has got hold of just the essential points on which the whole thing hangs. Take, for instance, his remarks on education at Birmingham. Get your foundations of general education up to a proper level first, then turn to technical instruction in commercial and other subjects, if you will. Make your local educational authorities strong, but don't let them get to work hurriedly before the central authority has had time to take stock and classify the educational material at the country's disposal. we have the whole duty, for the present, of educational reformers in a sentence. True, it had been previously urged in the SATURDAY REVIEW, but that does not show the less sagacity on the Duke's part.

We do not like to quarrel with the agitation of wellmeaning, but perhaps less well-informed, people over the destruction of such familiar species of British birds as the kingfisher, but we wish they would spare some of this indignation for the destroyers of much rarer birds. Among our occasional winter visitors there is none more interesting than the bittern. Ornithologists are apt to speak of the bittern as now almost unknown in England, yet specimens are seen (and destroyed) in the South of England every winter. We hear of one being killed at Cowes only the other day, whilst several have within recent years been obtained in the Itchen meadows near Winchester. If unmolested, the bittern would at times probably stay and breed with us. The species should be protected all the year round.

Few political speeches are worth carrying over to another week, but Sir Edward Grey is so much less a partisan than a politician, and so much less a politician than many better things, that words from him make an exception. Certainly his speech at Liverpool on the evening of Friday in last week deserves preservation for one delightful phrase. Was there ever anything more quaint than the description of the Tsar's conference as "a valuable asset for peace"? No ordinary man would ever have thought of expressing Mr. Stead's crusade of Mr. Morley's "white-winged peace" in terms of pounds shillings and peace. terms of pounds, shillings, and pence. Irony in excelsis!

THE IRISH PROBLEM.

THE series of articles which we have published during the past few weeks must have convinced serious readers that there is an Irish University ques-When every Viceroy and Chief Secretary without exception, so far back as one cares to count, has been forced to the same conclusion—when Mr. Gladstone agrees with Mr. Disraeli, Lord Mayo with Mr. Horsman, Earl Spencer with Lord Cadogan, Lord Rosebery with Mr. Morley, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach with Lord Selborne, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman with Mr. Balfour—the plain man who wishes to be just may be excused from further argument with the Ulster Orangeman with his mediæval ideas of toleration, or the Welsh Nonconformist with his highly modern idea of plundering the Church. There remains, however, the practical question of a remedy; and here the small but vigorous minority who oppose all concession to Irish feeling have had in the past a ground of complaint, or at any rate a point of attack, against Mr. Balfour, in that he so long hesitated to formulate a scheme for remedying the grievances which he has so often and so unreservedly recognised.

It so happens, however, that the conclusion of our series is coincident with the appearance of an elaborate confession of faith by Mr. Balfour, who has taken advantage of a threatened motion of censure from a section of his Manchester constituents to state his views in detail, views which he will doubtless reiterate in his public address on Monday. In his letter he again dis-cusses the principle involved, and on that he can naturally say nothing that is not already familiar to our That done, however, he proceeds to give the outlines of a scheme of Irish University reform which, although he insists that it is purely his own and that he speaks for no one but himself, is in our opinion clearly intended to forecast the policy of the Irish Government, even if it does not at present represent the views of

every section of the Cabinet.

In the first place there is to be no interference with Trinity College, Dublin. That was the rock on which Mr. Gladstone's 1873 scheme came to grief. It was an Irish Catholic who said that Trinity College was one of the few things in Ireland of which an Irishman need not be ashamed; and, making allowances for the inevitable exaggeration, we may conclude that in her three centuries of existence the "Silent Sister" has succeeded in securing in rich measure, even from those who were for two of those centuries rigidly excluded from her privileges, that affection which only an ancient University can evoke. "Old Trinity" must always occupy, by the mere force of historic facts, the premier position in Ireland; and, freed as she now is from every test and restriction, the college of Burke, of Goldsmith, and of Grattan, of Moore and of Emmett, will necessarily continue to attract the most brilliant Irishmen, whatever their class or creed. We have never understood the Roman Catholic demand as involving hostility to Trinity, and we have always insisted that the founding of a University to the development of which the majority of Irishmen could devote their energies would be the best way possible of strengthening Trinity. Mr. Balfour proposes to do for that majority what Lord Mayo, on behalf of Mr. Disraeli, offered to do thirty years ago; to establish a University "that would, so far as possible, stand in the same relation to the Roman Catholic population as Trinity College does to the Protestant." That was Mr. Disraeli's ideal in 1868, as it was, we have reason to believe, Mr. Gladstone's in 1873; for Lord Selborne in his recent Memoirs speaks of Mr. Gladstone's schemes being thwarted by "the prejudices of more than one powerful section of the Liberal party," which prevented him from granting to the Irish Roman Catholics what he believed to be their rights. The result being what the believed to be their rights. The result being what the Liberal Lord Chancellor calls a "feeble compromise" which satisfied nobody, and which involved the disastrous defeat of its authors. Mr. Balfour, to put his scheme in a sentence, proposes to establish a second fully equipped University in Dublin that shall satisfy the wants of the Roman Catholics, and a third in Belfast (the present Queen's College there being used as the basis) for the Presbyterians. Each of these, although under the preponderant influences of the section of Christian belief whose requirements it is intended to meet, will be free from all religious tests or disqualifications either for teachers or pupils, so that no Irishman shall in the future, any more than in the present, be excluded from Trinity, or from Belfast University, or from the new Roman Catholic Institution.

The Roman Catholic Bishops, in fact, do not ask for an exclusive University under ecclesiastical control, such as Trinity once was. They have formally and under their signatures agreed to accept a University free from all religious tests; a University in the governing body of which the lay element shall have preponderance over the clerical, a University endowed by the State as to its secular side, but claiming or accepting no endowment for theological chairs. Trinity College has its Divinity School; let that remain. The Roman Catholics have Maynooth, and the Presbyterians have their Assembly's College—let those remain at the special charge of their adherents. What the Roman Catholics ask and Mr. Balfour offers is a University of their own as predominantly Roman Catholic as Trinity is Anglican, and as Queen's College, Belfast, is Presbyterian. That is what they mean by "equality" in educational privileges.

But, says the survivor of the day of Sir Robert Peel, the Roman Catholics have equality already, since they are free to enter Trinity or the Queen's Colleges, where they will be met with no test or barrier. We are rather tired of rebutting this argument; perhaps its inadequacy can best be proved by an illustration which has already done service in Parliament. Suppose some nonsectarian philanthropist to set out for India and to endeavour to establish the British Raj there on a basis of enduring popularity by advocating absolute "equality" on occidental principles. He would in time of famine make a feast for the starving, and spread his board with fish and meat, and wine, and call on Mohammedans and Hindoos and Parsees to come and be fed. Would not any tiro in Indian administration tell him that his scheme was an absurdity, since it ignored the essential convictions and prejudices of the diverse Indian nationalities? Yet that is just what we have for long years back been trying to do in Ireland. We have twice within present memory tried to establish systems of University education such as British majorities thought the Irish people should want, in direct defiance of what they themselves said they did want. Equality under representative government surely means that the majority, and not the minority, shall decide on what are the essential conditions of equality; that an equality that violates the conscientious convictions, or even the prejudices, of a considerable section of the people is no real equality, but a sham and an imposture. The articles to which we have referred have clearly brought out the fact that no section of Irish opinion has consistently or clearly accepted the "mixed" or secular system—that that system was denounced variously as "Godless," "atheistical" and "Romish" so long as it was feared that the Roman Catholics might reap any advantage from it, and has been accepted and embraced by the Protestant extremists only since the Roman Catholics rejected it.

True equality, let us repeat it, consists in placing the Roman Catholics of Ireland in a position which shall reproduce as nearly as may be the position of Irish Protestants in regard to Trinity College. The classes in the new University in Dublin would be open to all who choose to attend them, but yet they would be inspired and permeated by the best thought of modern Roman Catholicism, just as the chapel and the classrooms, the very walls and courts of Trinity, are saturated with the spirit of Elizabethan Anglicanism; and the Presbyterians of Ulster have an obvious right to require their College in Belfast to be placed in a corresponding position. Such is the outline of Mr. Balfour's scheme, and such is the sound principle on which he bases it. He lays it before the Conservatives of Manchester first, but necessarily also before the whole people, for their approval. We are confident that in time that approval will be forthcoming. Timid Conservatives may be interested to learn that Lord Rosebery has been taking steps to sound public opinion in Ireland on the question, and that Sir Edward Grey's bold pronouncement in his Liverpool speech was not merely a statement of

personal views. Lord Rosebery, we believe, is on this point at least in complete agreement with Mr. John Morley. The moral for the Conservatives who have been threatening Mr. Balfour with the break-up of the party if he insists on carrying out a measure which he knows to be just is that, except among the Welsh Nonconformists, they will find themselves without allies in their attempt to wreck the Government. If the leaders of the party miss this opportunity of conciliating the vast conservative force that is dormant among Irish Roman Catholics, they will commit a tactical mistake. We prefer, however, to rest our appeal, not on party strategy, but on simple justice.

ANGLO-FRENCH RELATIONS.

T would be difficult to praise too highly the tone 1 of the debate on Foreign Policy in the French Chamber, particularly, we need hardly add, with regard to the relations between France and England. It proved, what we have all along maintained in these columns, that the French nation must not be judged either by its Boulevard press, or by the Anti-Dreyfusards of Paris. The representatives of France seemed to have shaken off the hideous nightmare of the Affair, and to have emerged from a madhouse into the cool, dry light of a dignified discussion of facts. There was only one jarring note in Monday's debate, and it came from a quarter which gives us an indefeasible right to resentment. M. Denys Cochin spoke appa rently for the Royalists, and he was both impertinent and inaccurate in his references to this country. For his inaccuracies we do not care; but on his impertinencies we feel bound to observe that, if there is one party in France from whom we are entitled to expect a courteous and charitable interpretation of our conduct, it is that of the Orleanist family. It is unpleasant to remind people of obligations; but, putting gratitude aside, it is shortsighted of the Orleanists to take up an attitude of hostility to England. Should they ever realise their dreams, which seems less likely now than ever, they would not find their path made smoother by this ostentatious abandonment of the policy of Louis Philippe. However, even M. Cochin wound up by saying that "both moral and material interest forbade a rupture, and such an issue was too absurd to be for a moment assumed," which appeared to be the only sentiment in his speech that was cheered.

M. d'Estournelles, who opened the debate, was very frank in his criticism of the mistakes of French Colonial policy. The history of France in Egypt was one, he said, of "lost opportunities," and he asserted, what we have always suspected, that the country had been kept in complete ignorance of the facts. M. Ribot's speech was in part an elaborate defence of French foreign policy, especially in relation to Madagascar and Newfoundland, into which we do not care to follow him at present. On the Egyptian question he took up ground which, from the international lawyer's point of view, it is not so easy to attack. There is no doubt they technically England's progressing in Forms in that, technically, England's position in Egypt is irregular, and that the formal agreement of Europe has not been obtained to our de facto protectorate of the country. Pedantically speaking, Egypt is still under the rule of the Khedive, who is the vassal of the Sultan of Turkey. M. Ribot says that we must have a conversation with Europe on the subject. We cannot agree with him that until we satisfy the formalists there is something lacking in our moral position. And we can clearly foresee that to regularise our position in Egypt would mean laying ourselves open to all kinds of claims for compensation from the other European Powers and from the Sultan. Surely Great Britain has spent enough on nursing the assets of the European bondholders, and on rescuing Egypt from the mis-government of the Pashas, without being asked to buy out a purely titular Sovereign, and a bundle of very complicated treaty rights. France, be it observed, is the only Power which has raised this question of form; and France, M. Ribot admits, cannot enforce it alone.

Nothing could have been better, in feeling and expression, than the speech of M. Delcassé. We cannot help contrasting the pith and point of M. Delcassé's rebuke to the Jingo Press with the rather feeble jocosity of the

Duke of Devonshire at Birmingham. His Grace seems to think it quite natural and harmless that the Press should treat international questions from the "poetical and heroic" point of view. M. Delcassé treats the matter more seriously. "From the first we were called upon to take up attitudes which might be deemed firm, but would only have been boastful, and it was not considered whether the situation allowed of them. . . . Then, in face of the reality which was gradually manifest, in face of the exaggerated proportions of the controversies, perils were descried which a great nation cannot brave except for safeguarding its vital interests. Suddenly parties were silent; union was effected in a silence, not less eloquent perhaps, but certainly more edifying, than a hundred stormy speeches." It would be hard to beat that as a descripspeeches." tion of the crisis.

M. Delcassé has the instinct of the historian; for, assuredly, there is no point on which the chronicler will dwell more complacently than on the tact and self-control by which Lord Kitchener and Major Marchand averted war. We heartily join in M. Delcassé's tribute to the "noble representatives of two great States," and we will not pursue his inquiry into the question whether the Marchand mission was civil or military. Foreign Minister concluded by describing the whole Fashoda incident as "an inexplicable adventure, incomprehensible to the masses of the people," and as such it is high time it was buried. The veriest croaker, and the most malignant mischief-maker, will fail to discover in this debate anything but the sincere expression of a wish on the part of France to come to a speedy and amicable understanding with England. Is it not significant that in Wednesday's "Times" the following telegram from Cairo appeared?—"The French Anglophobe newspaper, the 'Journal Egyptien,' ceased publication to-day!" to-day!

THEOLOGY IN THE NEWSPAPERS.

THEOLOGY has for some time reigned in the news-The correspondence columns have been crowded with ecclesiastical disputants—all eager, many violent, most ill-informed. The leader-writers have been busy with the National Church. The ringleader in this new departure in journalism has been the principal organ of public opinion. When for more than six months the "Times" surrenders itself to the service of religious controversy, it is impossible to avoid the question whether or not the best interests of religion are compromised by the theological activity of

secular journalists.

It must be obvious that the newspaper as an organ of religious discussion is open to serious objection. The sacred character of the subjects at issue disqualifies them for the rough treatment and wide publicity of columns which normally match the tastes, and echo the thoughts, of busy men of the world, who know little and care less about theological concerns, whose interest in them, therefore, signifies neither natural aptitude nor adequate knowledge for such discussions, but an abnormal excitement bringing into play latent prejudices and passions commonly quiescent. The incongruity of the association of high spiritual mysteries with the vulgar affairs of mercantile and political activity offends good men, and deeply wounds sensitive consciences. The Real Presence side by side with the latest quotations from the Stock Exchange, private confession cheek by jowl with sporting intelligence-these, and many similar Moreover, from the necessities of the case, and many similar antitheses, are equally grotesque, frequent, and painful. Moreover, from the necessities of the case, impartiality is out of the question. The side that cares and the side that does not care cannot be equally matched. Equal space may be allotted to the combatants in the correspondence columns; the leaders may succeed, though this is not often the case, in maintaining a tone of judicial indifference, but none the less the conditions are inherently unfair. The recent discussions have made this very evident. The High Church writers have necessarily been at a great disadvantage. They have had so much more to lose than their opponents. The latter stake nothing but opinions and

prejudices; the former contend for convictions and truths which they hold to be divine. This deep dis-tinction is reflected in their writings. On the one side we observe reluctance, careful statement, knowledge of detail, reticence, an obvious wish for peaceful com-promise, an underlying plea for toleration; on the other there are the "gaudia certaminis," a tone of arrogance, almost of brutality, a refusal to make terms, an apparent resolve not merely to defeat but to humiliate and evict the vanquished. We do not suggest that this difference decides anything one way or the other as to the merits of the respective contentions, although we admit that, after closely following this wearisome correspondence from the first, we feel a certain presumption favourable to the side which writes with courtesy and argues with reverence. The main point is that impartiality does not, and cannot, exist in discussions on such subjects carried on under such conditions.

Further, the state of public opinion on Church questions must be taken into account. It cannot be disputed that popular sympathy, which largely reflects popular prejudice, is markedly onesided. Newspapers, the breath of whose life is popular favour, are under the strongest possible inducements to echo the catchwords of the hour, and confirm by repeating the established assumptions of the populace. This, indeed, is the charge we are disposed to bring against the "Times." The conventional Protestant assumptions have been constantly taken for granted, and the current Protestant phraseology habitually used. Sir William Harcourt's standpoint has been adopted, and no serious attempt has been made to appreciate that of those whom he denounces with such vigour, and insults with such freedom. The journal that more persistently and more successfully than any of its rivals has exposed Sir William's pretensions on every subject, that has steadily declined to take him seriously, suddenly finds that he is a Daniel come to judgment when he shares that journal's views on theology. Is not this advocacy with a vengeance? It is evident that the High Church contentions are built on the theory that the Church of England is no mere creation of the sixteenth century; that neither her creed nor her discipline had origin in the Reformation; that her intimate relation with the State does not impair her right to account herself a true branch of the historic Catholic Church, whose origin and constitution are divine. This theory of the National Church is certainly that of the Prayer Book; it has been firmly held and eloquently expressed by the greatest Anglican divines; we cannot see how its truth can be contested by those who accept the one and revere the other. We think there are signs that and revere the other. We think there are signs that the public conscience is growing suspicious of those who profess to be its exponents. Polemical violence has overreached itself, and by fatiguing the toocredulous multitude has provoked some reaction of intelligence. Men are beginning to wonder whether justice is compatible with such violence, or wisdom the inspiration of such clamour.

Let it be admitted that the Church of England contains a small section of extreme Ritualists, whose avowed principles are irreconcilable with loyalty to the Prayer Book; that admission cannot justify an unfair and impolitic refusal to consider on their merits the actual contentions of the general body of High Church-It is easy to delude the public by catch phrases, but it does not serve the interest of religion to maintain misconceptions or to perpetuate grievances. It is neither just nor serviceable to describe the present controversy as one "between those who uphold the Protestant doctrine and practice of the National Church, and those who have sought to supplant them by a 'Catholic Revival.'" Whatever may be thought of the methods of the Tractarians, nothing is more certain than that they intended not to supplant but to assert and enforce the doctrine and practice of the National Church. If they declined to call either "Protestant," they only followed the practice of the Prayer Book and Articles, which never use that doubtful and contentious name, but always adhere to the ancient term "Catholic." Moreover, it is neither fair nor reasonable to go on reiterating the formidable accusation of "law-lessness" against the Ritualists without considering

their plea that the law is impracticable, or obsolete, or inconsistent with still more sacred obligations, or wrongly interpreted by wrong tribunals. There is no doubt much wilfulness, inconsistency, absurdity about the plea of conscience; nevertheless, the highest and most exacting obligation that a good man owns is to obey his conscience, and the spectacle of a large number of admittedly good men, whose consciences are at cross-purposes with the law, as it is interpreted by the Courts, ought to compel thought and careful inquiry rather than provoke mere invective and insult. note with much satisfaction the announcement that the two Archbishops intend to co-operate in performing the function which the law imposes on them, as final authorities in the determination of obscure or disputed Rubrics. The objection to the State Courts may be excessive, and in its expressions offensive, but can it be denied that it has its roots in the conviction, old as Christianity, that Christ's kingdom is essentially spiritual? The Erastian may ride roughshod over ecclesiastical susceptibilities, but the thoughtful member of the Church of England will reflect that the highest and best service which the National Church can render to the nation demands the frank recognition of the supremacy of that spiritual principle which is the living soul of morality and the inspiration of civic duty. It may be convenient, it is often difficult, to unite in working harmony the State, with its complex action and ever-widening responsibilities, and a Church which has convictions, traditions, customs, laws of her own; but let it not be forgotten that the inconvenience and friction are the necessary price of that religious life without which the State fails from within through lack of moral force, and a National Church becomes an organised

hypocrisy.
We must be reasonable. The "Reformation" was not the final term of human wisdom-nor may the Tudor Settlement bind for ever the worship and discipline of an expanding nation. London alone contains to-day a larger population than the England of Elizabeth. folly to suppose that the ecclesiastical requirements of an industrial society of thirty million souls can be satisfactorily provided for by the system which was fashioned to match the needs of an agricultural society of perhaps tour. The "Times," indeed, admits as much. "There has been, and there still is, no desire to cramp activity and development." Why, then, must the Ritualists be the only persons shut out from the benefit of this necessary concession? Why must the law be rigid and unyielding only to those whom all confess to be, as a rule, honest, hard, unselfish workers? Less rhetoric and more reasoning, less passion and more thought, less Protestantism and more religion—these are the urgent necessities of the hour. The National Church cannot afford to alienate her most devoted members, nor can the nation lightly suffer so great a sacrifice. faction or all that is legitimate and loyal in the Ritualist claim cannot be beyond the powers of statesmanship. Laws which govern the worship and discipline of a spiritual society cannot for long be enforced against the general sentiment of that society. In the religious sphere "the letter killeth, but the spirit giveth life." Elasticity is the condition of order, and change the law

of growth.

THE WHEAT QUESTION.

IT is by no means easy to kill old traditions. They may be overlooked and trodden down for a time; but when the storm has swept past they raise their heads again, just as a wet grass field rights itself after a band of fox-hunters has ploughed up its surface to an extent which suggests that it would never more be green. Wheat, however, is a hardy plant: it suffers less than is generally supposed from the hoofs of the hunter, and the time may come when it may again become a more lucrative item in agriculture than it has been, though it were rash to predicate anything, one way or the other. The old tradition to which reference has been made in connexion with wheat has been that wheat, or, speaking more widely, corn, has been our king: it was for time out of mind regarded as possessing a traditional leadership in agricul-

ture, and to a certain extent the idea is justified in fact, since the price of corn has always had a curious connexion with trade and prosperity generally. One oft-asked question, which people answer for themselves is whether the foreign competition to which the British farmer has to submit is a good or a bad thing for the community at large. It may have use that American competition in food may however be true that American competition in food stuffs has almost reached its utmost limit. America is a corn-exporting country now, as England once was; but the population of the United States has increased, while the average yield has dropped, according to the best authorities, from 15 bushels an acre to about twelve. The expert estimate is that by the time the year 1910 arrives the population will have mounted up to ninety millions of souls, and to feed them will require the produce of fifty millions of acres over and above the area which at the then rate of increase would be at their disposal. The deduction drawn by Professor Sheldon, from the estimate of the American expert, was that in a few years the United States would require for home consumption all the food they could grow, and that in about twenty years from that time they would have to import from ten to fifteen per cent. of the people's food. This may be cheering reading for some of our agriculturists, but the question naturally suggests itself, Whence will the Americans procure that corn which they must import; while it is not beside the mark to ask to what market England will have to look for what she wants? Mexico and Canada are the most likely places, in all probability, to be requisitioned by America, though the climatic conditions of the two countries differ widely; and inasmuch as the western portion of Canada's wheat area is of enormous size, and that acres unnumbered and, at present, uncultivated, are awaiting the plough, it would appear that there is a good time coming for the Dominion.

Meantime there is every indication that our farmers will not receive the best of prices during the present year; in fact, there is almost certain to be a depression in the corn market; so to a certain extent trade generally The precise connexion between the price may be bad. of corn and the briskness of trade is, from some points of view, difficult to account for; but one, and a very probable, solution may be the existence of a somewhat large non-speculative class, such, for instance, as farmers themselves and those unfortunate persons who farm their own land, or who are dependent upon their rents for their money. These will not spend their cash until they receive it. Should it come in, and the price of corn is not without its effect, the country gentleman of corn is not without its effect, the country gentleman may go to town for the season, for a greater or less portion of it, according to his means, and, when there, will help in his proportion towards the briskness of trade. Or he may spend money in other directions, while the agriculturist, in his way, may launch out a little and benefit the trading class. At the beginning of the present week, however, the price of wheat was about three shillings and eightpence, or three shillings and ninepence, per bushel—just about the cost of production—and on that bushel—just about the cost of production—and on that neither farmers nor landowners can grow rich; yet wheat continues to be grown. The amount of land devoted to the production of wheat necessarily varies from year to year; but now that mixed farming is supposed to make the most remunerative return, it is idle to expect that, until matters materially improve, other crops will be sacrificed to wheat, which might not be grown in its present quantities, were it not for the straw which finds a ready market in the best stables, not to mention other uses for it. The fact remains that the United Kingdom needs 30,000,000 quarters of wheat for her own purposes, of which quantity a very small fraction under a third is all that she can grow herself. The consumption of wheat in England is at the rate of three hundred and sixty pounds per year per head; yet the French, who consume about five hundred and forty pounds a head, can in the great majority of years grow the whole of the wheat they require. There was an exception, however, in the year before last, when the wheat crop in France was the worst known since the war, and so she had to import ten millions of quarters. The French, however, do not buy wheat from America if they can help it, preferring Roumania as a market, which, on the whole, is perhaps fortunate for England.

The problem confronting the English farmer at present is how to make wheat growing pay. When the air was thick with the chances of a war, some there were who thought that in the not very distant future wheat might be selling at war prices; but that idea has, we hope, passed away. The one thing to do is to grow saleable crops and plenty of them. It is all very well for the experimentalist to seek after pedigree wheat, but the agriculturist must be content to grow corn that buyers will purchase; and even then he will often find his produce excelled by that which arrives from America, though he may console himself with the reflection that the English oats and barley are superior to anything sent from America. Last year the crops in England, France, Russia, and the United States were much above the average, and, so far as our own country is concerned, the increase was in the yield, and not on account of increased acreage. Wheatgrowing is now a far more scientific business than it really "our King," whereas we are now ruled over by grass. The course of Norfolk farming was copied by other counties, and artificial manures were practically unknown. Now the farmer has called in to his aid the chemist, and much that would not be out of place here has recently been said by Dr. Voelcker, Consulting Chemist to the Royal Agricultural Society of England, in the course of lectures on "Chemistry in Rural Life," which he has been delivering at Aberdeen, and a great deal of what the Doctor uttered would have staggered the agriculturist of old. Nevertheless, the modern farmer can less afford to disregard the latest scientific discoveries in connexion with wheat growing. Agricultural chemists of a former day went so far as declaring that the object of manuring was to return to the soil the constituents which the crops had taken away; but it remained for a later generation to show how this could be done to the best advantage. In opposition to Liebig, who contended that the growth of plants depended chiefly on the mineral constituents of the soil, the sages of Rothamsted pointed out that nitrogen exercised a more important influence, and on this much learning has been expended. The on this much learning has been expended. The moral, however, seems to be that, if the farmer would do the best he can for himself, he must be up to date in his farming generally, and especially when he comes to deal with cereals, and even then he cannot be by any means sure of meeting with that success which he desires and deserves. The wisdom of growing wheat, as indeed other crops, on suitable soils only, is generally recognised, while you must hit upon the exact manure for the ground and the crop to attain success; and here it is that the agricultural chemist comes in with his advice and record of latest experiments. These latter, however, every enterprising farmer must make himself, at least in a small way, though, of course, he and the chemist have the trials of others to work upon, and their experience cannot be otherwise than valuable to The necessity of suitable soil for growing corn is, of course, partly an answer to those who clamour for the cultivation of waste lands, since some of the soil is fit for nothing. It is true that we never have in England provisions for more than than a few months, and that we grow no more than about a third of the wheat we require; but that is no argument for growing corn on poor soil, for if the experiment were tried again, it would not add much to the total. The only way in which we can increase our wheat crops is by breaking pasture and producing cereals instead of beef, and that will never come to pass until the demand for home-grown corn shall make it worth a farmer's while to bring the plough into his pastures.

HARE-HUNTING.

HARRIERS and beagles enjoy, probably, at the present time a greater popularity than they have done during any part of this century. Fifty or sixty years ago, when fox-hunting was at the zenith of its fortunes and popularity, hare-hunting had somewhat fallen into disfavour; the "currant jelly dogs," as harriers were opprobriously called by too prosperous and contemptuous foxhunters, were but too often re-

ferred to with a sneer, and followers of hare-hunting pursued their sport under the cold shadow of neglect. All that has been changed, however, and hare-hunting, having emerged from a period of eclipse, is more popular than at any previous period, and shows signs of enduring in Britain at least as long as, if not longer than, the sister sport.

During the present season no less than 184 packs of hounds are devoted to the chase of the hare in various parts of the United Kingdom. Of these, 108 packs of harriers are put into the field in England alone, while Ireland supports 26. Scotland was never much of a harrier country, and can boast no more than three packs

Foot beagles have greatly increased in number, and in the United Kingdom no fewer than 44 packs of these cheery little hounds are now hunting, of which England maintains 39, Ireland 3, and Wales and Scotland one each. Three packs of basset hounds, all of which are supported in England, complete the list of

hare-hunting packs.

Hare-hunting is undoubtedly a more antique sport than the chase of the fox. Xenophon pursued it with delight in ancient Greece, and in Britain the hare was for centuries looked upon as a far more worthy quarry than the fox, which, until the time of Queen Elizabeth, and even later, was regarded as mere vermin. Nicholas Cox, author of the "Gentleman's Recreation," a work on sport published in 1677, writes thus enthusiastically: "As of all chases the Hare makes the greatest pastime: so it is a great delight and satisfaction to see the craft of this little poor Beast in her own self-preservation." And it is to be admitted that in those shifts and expedients which afford to lovers of hounds the true delights of hunting the timid hare is at least as fertile as any known beast of chase in any part of the world.

The harrier has been described as originating in a double cross between the small beagle, the Southern hound, and the dwarf foxhound. That is an assertion which at the present time it is hard to dispute. The true origin of most of our hunting hounds is so lost in obscurity, and the crosses by which perfection in hound types has been obtained have been so many and so various, that it is a matter of impossibility to assign an exact origin to what is called the old English harrier. In the last century, before hunting had attained the form and exactness which it now exhibits, country gentlemen who delighted in the chase usually maintained a few couple of different hounds for the various forms of chase. Thus William Somervile, author of that excellent poem "The Chace," an enthusiastic sportsman, kept about twelve couple of beagles "bred chiefly between the Cotswold harrier and the Southern Hound; six couple of foxhounds, rather rough and wire-haired; and five couple of otter hounds, which in the winter season made an addition to the foxhounds."

With the great advance made in the popularity of hunting during the first quarter of the present century, masters of harriers were tempted to emulate the speed of foxhounds and to introduce very largely foxhound blood into their kennels. The result of the creation of blood into their kennels. The result of the creation of dwarf foxhound blood, which now obtains so largely in the great majority of harrier packs, was undoubtedly to produce much faster runs and to kill the quarry much more rapidly than of old. But it may be doubted whether true hare-hunting was really benefited by the introduction of the stature, dash, and speed of the foxhound into harrier kennels. In some cases it is unquestionable that the hore is secreely allowed a fair questionable that the hare is scarcely allowed a fair chance, but, clean overmatched by the strong and fleet foxhound, is raced to her death with but little chance of exhibiting those marvellous tricks and resources by which her true chase is so greatly distinguished. foxhound craze has, however, it is to be hoped, had its day, and the old and long-neglected harrier blood is again becoming more and more sought after. It is not suggested that foxhound blood should be entirely eliminated—that would now be impossible—but that its undue preponderance should be avoided. Beckford has well said, "I hope you will agree with me that it is a fault in a pack of hounds to go too fast, for a hare is a little timorous animal which we cannot help feeling some compassion for at the very time we are pursuing her. We should give scope to all her little tricks, nor kill her foully and over matched. I will venture to say that, as far as her own safety is concerned, she has more cunning than the fox and makes shifts to save her life far beyond all his artifice."

No one who has watched patiently the chase of the hare with a pack of true harriers can deny that Beckhare with a pack of true harriers can deny that beckford's remarks contain the very gist and essence of
hare-hunting. Occasionally hares are found which
exhibit as remarkable powers of fleetness and endurance
as does the fox himself. Thus, within the last few
weeks, a hare stood up before a pack of Old English
harriers in the South of England—a pack which has
established a first-rate reputation for hunting and killing established a first-rate reputation for hunting and killing powers—for no less than four hours and a quarter, and, thanks to the approach of night, even made good her escape. This hare was hunted unsuccessfully more than once last season, and, three centuries ago, would probably have obtained eminence in the country-side in which her form lay as an undoubted witch.

In true harrier packs the old Southern hound blood is occasionally in evidence. The ancient blue mottle strain has now, unfortunately, become extremely rare. It ought, if possible, to be resuscitated. A blue mottle hound is seldom indeed a bad one, and usually combines in its person the best qualities of the hunting hound. And, especially, it excels in stoutness, tenacity, intelligence and scenting power, with a fair turn of speed. In Ireland, in the county of Tipperary, an ancient pack of beagles—the Scarteen—has been maintained at Emly House by the Ryan family for an extraordinary period of years. These hounds are described as pure Kerry beagles, and in colour they have always been, as they now are, black and tan. On Boxing Day the Scarteen Beagles met at the Hill of Knockaron, as they did just a century ago, and it is remarkable that during the last hundred years these hounds have never failed to meet at this trysting place on the day following Christmas. No other pack in the United Kingdom

can, it is to be supposed, exhibit such a record.

There is another black and tan pack to be found in the South of England—to wit, the Bexhill harriers.
These harriers used, in the time of Mr. Brookes, a former master, to be of pure Southern hound blood. I believe the present black-and-tan colour is largely due to the introduction of the bloodhound strain. The Edenbridge harriers, a Kentish pack, described as Southern hounds, are, or were, also largely black and tan; but it may be doubted whether some strong admixture of the bloodhound strain was not to be found in that The deep, melodious voices of the Edenbridge harriers, reminding one strongly of the present Bexhill

pack, seem to point to that conclusion.

In height the modern harrier stands mostly between 18 and 21 inches. Twenty inches is, in the opinion of competent judges, quite large enough for a hare-hunt-ing hound. Of late years there has been a great revival of interest in harrier blood, and "stud book harriers" and "pure harriers" now figure largely in the descriptions of hounds annexed to the various packs

noted in the annual "Field" catalogue.

With mounted harriers it is of course in the highest degree desirable that large fields shall not be encouraged. The farmer and occupier can, in these bad times, scarcely be expected to welcome a crowd of mounted men in the pursuit of a quarry which rings so much over the same line of country. Harriers pursued on horseback are, therefore, compelled to a great extent to veil their popularity, and to escape attention from those uninvited guests who contribute so much to embarrass fox-hunting.

But with foot harriers or beagles the case is widely different. Fences are seldom injured; a long day's sport may be enjoyed without a sixpennyworth of damage to the occupier, and the farmer in nearly every instance not only welcomes the foot packs, but pre-serves hares keenly and enjoys the sport himself. If fox-hunting died to-morrow, hare-hunting on foot would probably still be able to endure for a hundred years to Much as one may love fox-hunting, it cannot be denied that there is, too, an infinite charm about the chase of the hare. The fine melody and cheerful sound of harrier voices; the wonderful patience and skill exhibited in puzzling out the infinite mazes of the hare's line; the extraordinary resourcefulness and art of the hare herself-all these things combine to render harehunting a real and abounding pleasure. Somervile's stirring exordium,

"To thy downs,
Fair Cotswold, where the well-breath'd beagle climbs, With matchless speed, thy green aspiring brow,

even at the distance of more than a hundred and sixty years, faithfully represents the feelings of the true lover of hare-hunting on a fine day of English winter.

THE PROBLEM OF IRISH EDUCATION.

III .- THE PRESENT DIFFICULTY.

THE SATURDAY REVIEW has one difficulty in advocating a thoroughgoing measure of redress for the Irish University grievance: there is the consciousness of being engaged in forcing an open door. The consensus of opinion on the part of those qualified to form one is so nearly complete that argument seems wasted. When a cause has obtained the support of Prime Ministers, Viceroys and Chief Secretaries, from Mr. Disraeli and Lord Mayo to Lord Cadogan and Mr. Gerald Balfour, from Mr. Gladstone and Lord Spencer to Lord Rosebery and Mr. John Morley, and is opposed by gentlemen of the weight of Mr. Perks and Mr. Samuel Smith, Mr. Lloyd George and Mr. Labouchere, Colonel Saunderson and Mr. Johnston of Ballykilbeg, there should be little more to be said. But the misery of the situation is that for the last thirty years it is the gentlemen in the latter category who have prevailed over those in the former: ignorance and bigotry have been able to counteract experience and statesmanship. We have seen in 1868 Lord Mayo, speaking for Mr. Disraeli, laying down the simple proposition that, as a matter of justice, Ireland ought to have a University that would "stand in the same relation to the Roman Catholic population that Trinity College, Dublin, does to the Protestant." Earl Spencer and Mr. John Morley are strong advocates of the same view, which has been vehemently supported during the past twelve months by Lord Cadogan in Ireland and by Mr. Arthur Balfour in the House of Commons. Yet nothing is done because each party is absurdly afraid of its own "tail:" the Liberals of the more rancorous section of the Nonconformists, the Conservatives of the Orangemen in Ulster and in Lancashire. It would be difficult to imagine a greater satire on Parliamentary government.

But let us see what is the precise value and signifi-cance of this opposition: we shall then know whether the wise and dignified course for a Conservative statesman is to yield to it or to face it and overcome it. main argument of the allied Orangemen and Nonconis that they are, above all, conscientious; that formists they are irrevocably pledged to the mixed and secular systems; that to establish separate and religious education is to do violence to their conscientious scruples, which have as much right to be respected as have those of the Roman Catholica. of the Roman Catholics. One very sufficient answer is that made long ago by Burke, that "in England the Roman Catholics are a sect: in Ireland they are a nation,' and that it is little less than an impertinence for Welsh Dissenters and Scotch Presbyterians to dictate to them in a matter so entirely within their province as the education of their children. But the single-hearted devotion of these intransigeant supporters of secular education deserves further examination. Is it true that they have always been opposed to religious education? There were practically three main groups of opponents to the scheme which in February last was so warmly supported in the House of Commons by Mr. Arthur Balfour and Mr. John Morley. The old high and dry "ascendency" Protestants represented by Colonel Saunderson and Mr. William Johnston, the Presbyterians represented by Mr. Rentoul, and the English Radical Dissenters represented by Mr. Perks and Mr. Lloyd George. It may be well to dispose of the Radical group first, as it is not necessary to waste many words on them. Their consistency and their intelligence were made clear in the correspondence in which the Roman Catholic Bishop of Limerick recently insisted on their remembering that they had one and all supported a clause in the Home Rule Bill of

1893, directly aiming at the establishment of just such a Catholic University as they now profess to "conscientiously" object to. The fact that these "conscientious" gentlemen did not mind what happened in Ireland so long as by conciliating the Irish vote they could secure support for their attacks on the English Church, does not improve matters. A conscientious objection that only applies on one side of the Irish Sea, and that only comes into operation when a Unionist Government is in

office, need not trouble us further. Nor do the Irish ascendency party and the Irish Pres-byterians find themselves in a much better position when their devotion to united secular education is put to the test of history. It was, as we have seen, the predecessors of Colonel Saunderson and Mr. Johnston who set the fashion by denouncing the "Devil's schools" and the "godless colleges," and it was the most powerful organ of the Ascendency in Dublin that declared that the Ouege's Colleges "would result in nothing but that the Queen's Colleges "would result in nothing but an atheistic people," and that "atheism and anarchy would make earth a hell." Irish Churchmen, in fact, steadily denounced mixed education so long as it meant the granting of University privileges to Irish Catholics; it was only when they found that Irish Catholics repu-diated the gift that the Irish Protestants began to insist on thrusting it down their throats at any cost. They declared and reiterated for years that for Protestants to sit side by side with Catholics on equal terms was "to deliver the education of Ireland over to the Romish priesthood," yet when the Roman Catholics on their side insisted that their pupils should have separate education, the cry was at once changed, and the "Romish" priesthood" have ever since been denounced as bigoted and grasping for demanding precisely what the Pro-testants themselves insisted on half a century ago. The Presbyterians have a somewhat more consistent record, but they also must not press their conscientious objecmember of that body, now a County Court Judge, pointed out during the debates on Mr. Gladstone's Bill of 1873, "Presbyterians, as such, have no objection to denominational education for themselves; they only object to give denominational education to Catholics. They have for many years been ardent supporters of mixed education in the Queen's Colleges, for the simple reason that the Queen's College 'mixture' has always had a predominantly Protestant and Evangelical flavour. . . . Presbyterian love of mixed education simply means hatred of Catholicism, and its true nature will appear the moment the mixed system threatens to endanger, not Catholic, but Calvinistic orthodoxy." Here we have the same tale exposed as in the case of the "ascendency" churchmen. The "conscientious" scruple about religious education only comes into operation when there is a possibility that the Roman Catholics may benefit by it. No representative party in Ireland honestly calls for secular education. It is simply the backwash of the old "No Popery" cry—a reminiscence of the Penal days when education in a "Papist" was a felony.

We have seen what was Mr. Disraeli's attitude in 1868. Before he died he made another effort to meet the difficulty; but the House of Compress in the sense.

We have seen what was Mr. Disraeli's attitude in 1868. Before he died he made another effort to meet the difficulty; but the House of Commons in the seventies was still sadly in lack of enlightenment, and the great leader would not risk the bold course of endowing a University that would be the Catholic counterpart of Trinity. So we had Sir Michael Hicks Beach's timid experiment at indirect endowment. The old Queen's University was abolished and a new "Royal University" set in its place, a mere examining Board whose only object was, while remaining professedly non-sectarian, to act as a conduit-pipe for supplying a number of purely sectarian colleges with an indirect endowment in the shape of scholarships and prizes. It was not a little pathetic to be reminded a few weeks ago by Mr. Edmund Dease of Mr. Disraeli's real views about this precious scheme, which has benefited crammers very much, and University education not at all. "I know as well as you do what would be the just and proper settlement of this question," said the Tory leader to his interlocutor, "and what, in justice, the Roman Catholics of Ireland are entitled to, but . . . this is as much as can be carried at present. We cannot now induce Parlia-

ment to grant a suitable and direct endowment; but we are proposing to grant an indirect endowment... and when in due time the people of Great Britain find that they are virtually accepting the principle of an endowment which is quite inadequate, their sense of justice will cause them to admit that the Irish Roman Catholics are entitled to a properly endowed University college as regards income, buildings, and appliances." With that pregnant sentence one is prepared to leave the case in the hands of the educated public.

PAT AND SANDY.

DREADFUL days are doing. Mr. George Moore is prefatorially furious with Mr. William Archer for not having produced Mr. Edward Martyn's "Heather Field" (Duckworth and Co.) at the New Century Theatre. Mr. Archer cuts in with a provocative reply. Mr. Moore cuts in with a fulmineous rejoinder. He rides on the wordwind and directs the storm in the tea-cup, while the waves, "inches high," dash spars of wreckage against the porcelain embankment. Like the women of Mumbleshead, anguished readers of the "Daily Chronicle" balance themselves on the rim, straining their eyes tea-wards. And ah! corkily buoyant among the brown billows is seen the head of Mr. A. B. Walkley.

Even were I not fulfilled, as I am, with an awful joy in the grandeur of this tempest, I should be glad that Mr. Moore had splashed back into criticism. When a creative artist begins to criticise he is almost always interesting. The creative artist is, necessarily, narrow in his views of art: concentration in his own temperament and in his own method inclines him to excessive praise of any work of art which seems to echo his own ideals, and it precludes him from any wide, eclectic sympathy with other works of art—precludes him, in fact, from being a reliable critic. If he criticise frankly, with all the courage of his own prejudice, he is sure to be suggestive, nevertheless. He may make all manner of glaring blunders, but, probably, he will also strike in criticism some truth or half-truth which the professional critic would have missed, and in the glare of his very blunders we shall, at any rate, see further into his own soul. If his sally involve him in conflict with some professional critic, some just person of calm, acute temper and impaired enthusiasm, then we are sure to see sport. The collision of Mr. Moore and Mr. Archer is a perfect little episode in its way. It is more than a collision of critic and creative artist: as a collision of Scotchman and Irishman it is of deep interest to the ethnologist. It is a case of Pat in the kale-yard or of Sandy on the potato-patch, and when Celt meets Caledonian, "most anything may eventuate." Celt meets Caledonian, "most anything may eventuate. Not only is Mr. Moore very Irish, and Mr. Archer preternaturally Scotch, but Mr. Archer is always at his best in controversy, and Mr. Moore, beyond being a creative Irishman, is an unique, amazing creature, frank to the verge of unscrupulousness and—how shall I say it?—almost nude in his naïveté. From the very vagueness of his prose-style his turbulent meanings take especial force those unfinished sentences, tapering away into three dots, seem to suggest the presence of thoughts too wild to be embodied even by him. . . . Or are they breathing-spaces between the blows? . . . The crack of the shillelah echoes throughout his preface. A shrill whoop, a twirl in the air, and crack! down goes Mr. George Alexander with a fractured skull. Down goes Mr. Pinero. Down go Maupassant, Mr. Jones, Mr. James, Mr. Leader, Mr. but who shall enumerate the prone? Mr. Moore, out who shall enumerate the prone? Mr. Moore, in his admiration of two young compatriots, will not allow that there is any talent save in them. Nay, so perfervid is he that he cannot bear to think that anyone save himself sees any merit in the work of these two youths, and he quaintly asserts that one of them, Mr. W. B. Yeats, "escapes the appreciation of the newspapers." This thought's paternity is so obvious that one wonders why Mr. Moore paternity is so obvious that one wonders why Mr. Moore smites Mr. Archer for not raving about the "Countess Kathleen." However, crack! and down goes the Kathleen." However, crack! and down goes the Scotchman. And why (a louder crack!) did not Mr. Archer produce the "Heather Field"? Then up springs

Mr. Archer. He grips his gude claymore and splinters the shillelah with a slick assertion that the play "was not good enough." He makes a thrust and inflicts a grievous wound with the denial that Mr. Moore created the Independent Theatre. Bleeding profusely, Mr. Moore yet closes with Mr. Archer and grounds him with a charge of betraying art to the public. Before these lines are printed, Mr. Archer will be on his legs again, no doubt. But, in the meanwhile,

Mr. Moore has certainly grounded him.

Mr. Archer had declared that, if he were on the committee of an English Théâtre Français, he would "ruthlessly blackball" such plays as the "Countess Kathleen" and the "Heather Field" until they "had proved, in the experimental theatre, their power of appealing to an intelligent public." This, as Mr. Moore points out, would exclude Ibsen, whose public is exhausted by six performances. There Mr. Moore is exhausted by six performances. There Mr. Moore "gets home," indeed. It is the public which, as I am always demonstrating, is responsible for the drama's inferiority to other arts, and the mission of a Stateendowed theatre would be to show the public (not in a hole-and-corner-experimental fashion but with imposing circumstance) better drama than the public wants. The public stays away from the hole-and-corner-experimental theatre. But it would go to a great official theatre and be educated despite itself. Its education might be slow, but it would be quicker than it is now. the mission of a State-endowed theatre would be, not merely to educate the mob: it would also be to gratify those cultured persons who love good drama and wish to see it constantly in a worthy temple of its own, freed of its servitude to the mob. Who, as Mr. Moore suggests, would care to go to the National Gallery if the pictures were chosen by plébiscite? The National Gallery is good because the pictures are chosen without reference to the mob's proclivities. And why should not drama, like painting, have its noble sanctuary? When Lord Rosebery made his speech about "the predominant partner" he gave Home Rule away, inasmuch as England, which would accept Home Rule as a fact, would never believe in it as a theory. Even so does Mr. Archer give away dramatic progress when he insists on the previous conversion of the public to the plays produced in a State-theatre. Lord Rosebery's attitude was justifiable by the fact that the British public is shrewd in politics. In art the British public is—well, not shrewd, and Mr. Archer, in behaving as though it were, gives away the whole posi-tion which he has hitherto maintained so ably and so finely. From the artist or art-critic to the mob there should come no compromise, and it is a melancholy thing to find Mr. Archer-him "who was young so long!"—quietly stultifying himself into popularity. It is quite right of Mr. Archer not to follow Mr. Moore's example of dismissing as worthless anything which does not seem to him a work of supreme genius, but, in the matter of the public's taste, my sympathies are all with

matter of the public's taste, my sympatines are all with Mr. Moore, whom I thank for his angry superlatives. It is curious how few people understand that the public is the drag on the drama. "Why," asks the "Daily Chronicle," "is the drama sterile?" Forthwith we find a letter from some earnest ass who signs himself "Dramaticus," charging the Censor and the actor-managers with the whole responsibility. (It is a safe rule that the man who, in writing to a newspaper, adopts a Latin pseudonym never talks sense. "Paterfamilias" and "Timeo Danaos," "Excelsior" and "Audi Alteram Partem"—to what bosh they are always subscript!) The actor-manager would be delighted to produce good plays if their production did not entail bankruptcy. As it is, he has to produce bad plays, and, very naturally, he prefers a bad play with a good part for himself to a bad play without one. As for the Censor, to charge him with being responsible for the drama's sterility is about as sensible as it would be to blame the Lord Chamberlain because, at some Drawing Room, the presented dibutantes were not pretty. I have no objection to "realistic" plays and plays on sacred subjects, if they are good plays; but it is unlikely that, if the Censor's Index Expurgatorius were published annually, lovers of drama would be much depressed by its perusal. No, no! The mischief lies much deeper down than the censorship or the actor-

managership. In almost every age there have been complaints of the drama's sterility, and it is always the In almost every age there have been innocent who are chastised. Thus the admirable and ingenious Canon in "Don Quixote" avers that the people would be better pleased if "those headstrong fellows," the actors, would consent to give them anything but trash. "I have often," says he, "endeavoured their projective that they would to convince the actors of their mistake, that they would draw more company, and gain more credit by acting plays written according to art, than by such extravagant pieces; yet they are so attached and wedded to their own opinion that nothing will wrest it from them.' How modern that is! Only when the Canon proceeds to give as his nostrum "the establishment of a theatrical censorship" does he seem to be at all out of date. "All these evils would cease if some intelligent and judicious person of the Court were appointed to examine all plays before they are acted. . . . The writers of plays, moreover, would take more pains what they did, knowing their work must pass the rigorous examination of somebody capable of appreciating it." How Mr. Radford must blush and bridle over that passage! And what does "Dramaticus" think of it? For my own part, I am sure that the abolition of censorship would do our drama to-day no more good than its establishment would have done Spanish drama at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Like Mr. Moore and myself, "Dramaticus" should snarl straight at the

Owing to the public, the theatre has sunk so low that few men of talent dare commit themselves to dramat-Mr. Moore trumpets Mr. Martyn as a man of genius who has written a lovely play. Well! The "Heather Field" is now very deeply stained with the blood of Mr. Archer and Mr. Moore; else, perhaps, I should think it more beautiful than I do tainly, it is better and more interesting than the plays to which one is accustomed. But, for the life of me, I cannot see its transcendent peculiarities. Granted that it is based on a primal emotion which is to be found in all humanity, while "Mrs. Tanqueray" was based on an emotion which is produced by certain conditions of modern society—wherein lies the strange beauty of its treatment? It is all very well for Mr. Moore to sneer at the plot of "Mrs. Tanqueray," but is the plot of the "Heather Field" much less trite? Does Mr. Martyn uplift us from the pettifogging conventions of the modern theatre and bring us face to face with the soul of humanity? Almost the whole of his second act is concerned with the schemes of the hero's wife to get her husband locked up in a lunatic asylum. She takes counsel with her friends, and on come the two doctors, and the hero is "drawn out" by them. Exit the hero. But a friend of his, suspecting the object of the doctors' visit, remains behind, and there is a long scene in which one of the doctors is persuaded not to sign a certificate, and the wife is thus foiled. The second act is, in fact, rather barren, as far as the soul of humanity is concerned. So is the third and last act, most of which is concerned with the hero's financial embarrassments and the old question of whether our old friend the mortgagee is going to foreclose. I have no wish to ridicule the play. There are glimpses of merit in it. I have no wish to But there are not more than glimpses, and they are visible only through infrequent chinks in a common brick wall of theatricalism. Perhaps the play will seem brick wall of theatricalism. Perhaps the play will seem better to me, if I see it performed in Dublin. At present, I will merely say that, as a literary play—by which term I mean a play that is well-written—it has little or no merit: the writing is dull and heavy. Mr. Moore seems to apply the term "literary" to any play which interests him as drama, and to deny it to any play which does not. He denies that "Guy Domville" had literary provide to the ground that Mr. Larges did not understand merit, on the ground that Mr. James did not understand how a play should be constructed. In order to justify this theory, Mr. Moore trots out the fallacy that to think well is to write well, and to think ill is to write ill. Pooh! style is a specific talent. The poorest thinkers often have it, and it is often withheld from the finest thinkers. The most hopeless lunatic, unable to connect two links in thought, might, quite conceivably, be the author of very melodious and delightful proserhythms; nor do we doubt the power of Carlyle's

intellect because of his numerous cacistophonousnesses. And, setting aside the question of rhythm, one knows that many fools can find the exact verbal expression for their folly, whilst many sages are "more or less painfully inarticulate on paper." But one need not appreciate these truths to see the absurdity of denying literary merit to "Guy Domville." At the Court Theatre there is a new play, of which I

At the Court Theatre there is a new play, of which I have not room to write this week. I am afraid Mr. Moore would not see much good in it. I myself, how-

ever, enjoyed it very much.

CONCERNING MUSICAL CRITICISM.

THE publication of my book, "Old Scores and New Readings," seems very likely to lead to a renewal of the ancient and almost forgotten feud between what we called the Old and the New Criticisims. The new quarrel seems likely, like the ancient one, to consist mainly of an exchange of personal compli-ments between the combatants. The public is not in the least interested in such an exhibition. Yet, when one is called ignorant, ill-mannered, a person of bad taste, extravagant, untrustworthy, uncritical, a gentleman devoid of judgment, a pessimist, and all the rest, it is hard to resist the temptation to shout back. Shouting back is, however, precisely what I endeavoured in the old days to avoid; and I shall avoid it the more easily now that the bitterness of the former attacks on myself personally seems a forgotten thing. Indeed, my essays have been received with a degree of respect that is distinctly flattering, and in complete contrast to the yells that greeted my first articles in the SATURDAY REVIEW, which were written before I had made any attacks. Then, my praise of Mottl, Richter and Manns, and a carefully considered appreciation of Emil Sauer—the most impersonal thing I ever wrote—were held up to derision as all that pieces of musical criticism should not be. Nowadays, my most violent denunciations of the art, or rather pseudo-art, which I loathe are spoken of as serious views worthy of serious consideration. Those who have wished to find fault, have found fault; those who have wished to misrepresent, have misrepresented; but nothing has been said calculated to draw a retort from me, nothing to make anything in the nature of a personal defence necessary: I have absolutely nothing to complain of. But, though I do not wish to defend myself, and though the adulation sprinkled over me has soothed my spirit into a state of perfectly beautiful optimisim, I cannot sit silent while the case for and against the kind of criticism I like, commonly called the New criticism, is wrongly stated. So I take advantage of the present slackness of things musical to state the case rightly: to state it as justly as possible is my sole

In the first place, then, let me define. The Old criticism and the New are, after all, only nicknames; but they are not nicknames which imply that a certain kind of criticism is old-fashioned and another kind newfangled. They really imply different methods and mental attitudes on the part of the writers. As a mere matter of history there were New critics before there were Old ones, there were specimens of New criticism before there were any specimens of the Old criticism. Owing to various circumstances the Old criticism got all the running for many years; but when the New criticism arrived, it was a revival, not a creation. In the beginning men heard music and said that they liked or disliked it, and they gave such reasons as they could discover or invent for their dislikes or likes; and this was, and is, the method of the New criticism. But before the era of journalism there was no demand and little opportunity for musical criticism of any kind. Then came journalism, and with journalism of course the reporter. He attended concerts and the opera, and reported what took place; and to him the fact of His Majesty the King or of Her Majesty the Queen being present was rather more important than the quality of the music he heard or its interpretation. He attended a notable murder trial in the morning, a fire in the afternoon, and heard some music in the evening; each thing was only a part of his day's

work; and the result of the musical part of his day's work was the beginning of the Old criticism. At first it was reporting, pure and simple. Then came the expert musician, indignant at the treatment music had received from his predecessor, and determined to treat it as an essential part of an evening's entertainment, not as an accident. But reporting had to be done.
Neither the public nor editors asked for the critic's opinions about the late Mr. Handel or the living Herr.
Haydn or Herr Mozart. Nobody cared about them. Criticism had, so to speak, to be smuggled in. There was a heavy duty on it. Anyone caught smuggling it into the columns of a newspaper would probably have been fined by the total loss of his employment and remuneration. Still, the expert musician's scribbling was better than unadulterated reporting. It was deadly dull: it could not be other than deadly dull: even to musicians it could not be other than deadly dull, for at best it was only reporting delicately tinctured with furtive drops of technical discussion. It was the Old criticism. In so far as it was reporting, it was neither better nor worse than other reporting; and beyond reporting, it contained nothing save technical discussion. The musician of the early part of this century was as illiterate and sluggish brained as the musician of to-day. To him music seemed divorced from life; at most he admitted it to be the expression of certain abstract emotions which he had never felt, and could therefore find no corresponding expression for in words; music was music, successions and combina-tions of notes; he preceded an ingenuous critic of to-day in thinking that musical criticism could never be interesting, since in the nature of things the critic was bound to talk only of the seven notes of the scale; and his writing was almost as poor and colourless as that critic's. Now, wearisome enough when written by expert musicians, the Old criticism became infinitely worse when it was written by reporters, advertisement canvassers, country organists, and the like, who aped the airs and pretended to the knowledge of the expert There have always been good critics of the musician. Old school, and since editors allowed them more space for genuine criticism, they have written in a way that interests a musician. On the other hand, the advertisement canvassers, uncultured, unread country organists and reporters still enjoy a royal time on some news-papers; and it was their lofty deeds that hastened the revolution.

The indictment brought against the Old criticism was this: that endless discussion of minute technical points in infamous English is not criticism as we understand the word when speaking of literary and dramatic criticism, and thinking of Lamb, Coleridge, Hazlitt and even Lewes; that appeals to authority are futile in art matters, seeing that we can like only what we are so constructed as to like, and that the fact of our grandfathers having liked a certain thing has no more power to make us really like it than it has to alter our tastes in food and wines, or the shape of our faces or the colour of our hair; that it follows from this that an impersonal judgment in art matters is an utter impossibility, and the pretence of an impersonal judgment a sham; that an impersonal judgment being impossible, the impersonal mode of expression is ridiculous: the judgment being the result of art playing upon a certain personality, we must know something of the critic's personality to know the value of the critic's personality. ality to know the value of the art. The younger critics, then, set to work to build up a body of musical criticism which would be worthy to stand beside the great dramatic and literary criticism of the past. they have succeeded or not does not matter: it is far too early to inquire; and in the meantime, it is surely no condemnation of a school of writers to say that they aim high. They began, not by underrating technique, for most of them have known a great deal more of technique than ever the Old critics knew—which is saying very little—but they put technique in its proper place. They little—but they put technique in its proper place. They uncompromisingly rejected all authority; they listened to music and tried to express in words the effect the music had upon them; that they might be just in their criticism they rejected the old pontifical, self-sufficient mode of delivery, and to an extent laid bare their own personalities that their readers might themselves estimate the value of their judgment; they refused to believe that music was divorced from life: they felt it to be a part of life, and in their criticism they always, in finding reasons for their feelings, discussed it in relation to life; and finally, they sought to write clean English. These are the things they tried to do in the beginning; these are the things they try

to do to-day.

This is my statement of the case for the New criticism and against the Old. The intelligent public, and the younger musicians, have shown their preference for the New; and I submit that they are justified in their choice. The New method opens out vast fields full of interest that are closed to the Old. Every faculty of the New critic is at work. The record of his experiences among the masterpieces is bound to be richer and truer than any record made by an Old critic. The ranks of the New men are slowly being reinforced by writers of literary power; the ranks of the Old gain nothing but men of the old sort-either narrow-minded musicians with a love of counterpoint and petty detail, or mere reporters without knowledge, or gift of expression, or The New are winning all along the even a vocabulary.

line, as was inevitable from the first.

I have ended, but beg leave to add a few remarks on the charges brought against the New critics by the Old. It is curious that nearly all of these charges are not charges against the school and the method, but against particular writers, and most of them would apply with equal force to writers of the Old school. That we everlastingly censure, that we discourage men who with proper encouragement would do good work, that our criticism leads to nowhere—this is one of the charges. The answer is, first, that in every generation the bulk of the music written is second-rate or worse than second-rate, and that the critic lies if he calls secondrate work first-rate work; second, that the pure critic, if there could possibly be such a monstrosity, is no more concerned with the results of his criticism than Beethoven was concerned with the results of his symphonies; third, that the charge is not true, the New men being as prone as the Old to over-rate work which they think marks a movement in the right direction. We are also told about our over-striving after originality. That is the accusation brought by mediocrity against superior ability in every age. It will certainly never be brought against the critics of the Old school; and I wish them all joy of their safety. Then it is said that we show our bad taste by using the plain word instead of a Telegraphese circumlocution. For my part, I think it indicates rather worse taste to use ten words when the word we mean is, for instance, "cantharides," and no other word or combination of words will serve half so well. I say, more-over, that it is precisely in the right use of language that the superiority of the New school to the Old is shown. Mr. Shaw's lightness, speed, lucidity, Mr. Blackburn's pure literary English, Mr. Hichens' fanciful grace of expression - these are infinitely better than anything to be found in the journalistic reporting of the Old men. Lastly, we are told that we pay too much attention to our own personalities. That may be true: I should never dream of contending for the perfection of the New criticism. On the other hand in the production of all good art criticism the personality of the critic is the most important factors to the critic is the most important factor: true criticism consists in nothing else than a description of the feelings and thoughts of the critic. Of course men with no distinctive personality have tried and will try the New method; and such men are sure to be a nuisance and come to utter grief. I quite agree with the most vigorous denouncer of the New school when he says that no one wants to listen to the babblings of the village idiot. But has not the village idiot, on occasion, tried his hand at the Old criticism? J. F. R.

EXHIBITIONS AND A BOOK.

I .- Mr. Alfred Goodwin at the Fine Art Society's. The Old Water-Colour Society. Landscape Painters at the Dudley Gallery.

IT is one of the unfairest things in the distribution of gifts that Taste is frequently fatal to Talent. No one ought to have more taste than his talent will bear, certainly not enough to disgust him with his talent

because it is a small one, or prevent him putting it out to usury. But this frequently happens. It is seldom that we find an artist with Chardin's exquisite talent for poring over the beauties of a loaf or a cheese, who will let his eyes do their own work instead of making ambitious excursions over matters which intelligence tells him are more important than cheese. Cheese is his appointed gate into beauty and mystery: if only he sticks to the road he will go amazing lengths, further than he would reach by any grander track. But if a man's appreciation of what others do once oversickens his own business, it is all up with him. When I see Mr. Alfred Goodwin's drawings I cannot avoid the feeling that he is to some extent the victim of He began with a very real corner of perception: he had the seed of a little new flower which blossomed for a season or two; then, casting his eye over the wall at the gorgeous parterres of his neighbours, he tired of his own flower-bed. He came into art at a moment when the excitement over geology carried it as a subject clean out of the realm of science into that of art, and even of religion; for the truth of Genesis was in debate. A subject thus excited takes on an unnatural interest; people looked at stones for a short time as if they held the secret of life; the prophets and the poets saw them, and out of this exalted, intent gaze, that the writings of Ruskin enshrine for us, came an influence for the painters. There was Mr. John Brett, with the scientific positive eye; there was Mr. Alfred Goodwin, to whom the stones spelled romance; trap, schist, gneiss, and serpentine evoked a story. "Sinbad in the Valley of Diamonds" was the most notable, but there were others inspired by freakish rock-forms on coasts and the recesses of seacaves. Then, I think, there was a missing of the way—a very natural one, because Turner, who had been held up as the sanction for the geological art, was the sanction for a great deal more. Through him Mr. Goodwin attacked landscape and architectural composition generally, attacked them with a great deal of understanding and taste, but not with the same authentic inspiration. He brought less of his own authentic inspiration. He brought less of his own to this section of his master's activity, so that the inevitable has happened, and the copy has become provided by the copy has become a thinner and thinner assertion of style, or an attempt, as in "The First Christmas Dawn," to make up for the want of stuff by an extravagantly fanciful handling of its counterfeit. I make this criticism with some diffidence, but I do not know how else to analyse the feelings at once of sympathy and discontent which I recurrently experience before Mr. Goodwin's work. Something not quite the same, but equally difficult to define, dogs my appreciation of Mr. Clausen. He did not begin with his own subject and leave it, but is still in search of it, liable, like a magnet, to deflection by the neighbourhood of any strongly attractive art. I cannot agree with Mr. Nettleship in his recent book,* which is none the less interesting for frequently rousing the spirit of contradiction, that with Mr. Clausen we have advanced a stage on the road "J. F. Millet." I see rather some tendings that do not naturally belong to the later artist. He began as a positivist in paint, he is in search of a creed, but to enter Millet's church with English peasants would be a false step. Mr. Clausen is still feeling the pulse of the Essex peasant. He has had some good days with him in the hayfield, lost in sun and flowers; he will never cope with the side of him that George Morland would have understood temperamentally; one watches his efforts with material too brutal, perhaps, for his gentle nature with curiosity and sympathy. He contrasts with some of his neighbours at the Old Water-Colour Society, like Mr. Arthur Melville, who have an assured decorative procedure that is slapped down upon all subjects alike. Trees, clouds, hills, the forms of men emerge clipped and shorn by this strange machine. To carry the process through, as Mr. Melville does, argues unusual technical skill; but one cannot but think that the Japanese procedure of colour-printing would give better results for half the pains, and allow of more flexible drawing.
In the exhibitions under review Mr. Peppercorn stands

out as a man in whom perception and taste are in com-

^{*} George Morland. Seeley and Co.

plete unison. His perception is monotonous—landscape saddened and muffled—but his own; and he does not break into ill-affected laughter from a desire to be catholic. One or two of the other painters who exhibit with him attain a certain serenity of aspect in their landscape, and Mr. Leslie Thomson in particular works up to a very rich colour in his blues and greens without losing aërial amplitude. With Mr. Peppercorn we know we are in for an elegy, with Mr. Thomson and Mr. Aumonier for a less penetrating, but a wide and exhilarating prospect. Mr. Napier Hemy, who exhibits with another group at the Fine Art Society's, might very well group with the painters in question.

II. "Sartor Resartus." Illustrations by Edmund J. Sullivan.

I have not come across any notice doing justice to ese remarkable drawings. Such notices may very these remarkable drawings. Such notices may very well have escaped me, but there is some danger that, in the deluge of illustration, work differing altogether in quality from the ordinary may miss its due recognition. Reviewers have become absurdly amiable to the trashy draughtsmanship that frequently hides itself behind "decorative" pretensions until the world begins to long for clean unillustrated books. Accordingly in some of the notices of the book I have observed a slightly querulous tone; the question was put, "Do we want 'Sartor' illustrated? Is this the Teufelsdröckh of our fancy?" and so forth. I invite the candid to examine one or two of Mr. Sullivan's † drawings, and ask themselves whether these questions continue to agitate them, whether he does not prove a perfect right to find a pretext in Carlyle. Let them open first at the headpiece to "Testimonies of Authors," and enjoy the portrait of the very sort of reviewer I have been speaking of, a pursy, choleric gentleman suspiciously glaring at the crumpled pages of his copy, and snorting in his beard as he tones himself down to "The author of Teufelsdröckh is a person of talent; his work displays here and there some felicity of thought and expression, considerable fancy and knowledge; but . . ." Having enjoyed the apt character of the figure, let them examine with what severe and masterly drawing it is expressedsevere and masterly drawing it is expressed—the crabbed face, the gnarled hands, the plethoric body settled down in the chair with such dogmatic habit, and, finally, the rare command of the pen involved. In virtuosity Mr. Sullivan rivals the late Aubrey Beardsley, and his line is displayed not only in calligraphy or gratesque, but in the close drawin calligraphy or grotesque, but in the close draw-ing of charactered human bodies, an infinitely more complex task. Then we turn to the drawing that faces Chapter I., and find a fascinating invention—old Carlyle-Diogenes-Teufelsdröckh in his tub. A pipe is in one hand, a book in the other, and he stares out with abstracted eyes, facing a death's-head on a pile of books, while a row of footlight candles gutters. I should put beside this the "Wandering Jew." tight-buttoned put beside this the "Wandering Jew," tight-buttoned in seedy frock-coat, while the wind drives the trees tight-buttoned and his monstrous whiskers, his uneasy eyes, and his battered hat. Also the "Andreas," an old man pruning in a wonderful thicket of slim branches, and the Swineherd that follows. Besides these single figures are more elaborate pieces; for example, the beggars coming to pick rags from the "Laystall;" the "Fools' Paradise," with its bald laurelled fatuous poet, its sodden jaunty king, and the magnificent lunatic who supposes himself to be conducting the sunrise; the ragfair of "Field Lane," when the Jew reappears, superb with four hats, and the "Bedlam" of Monmouth Street. This last is a fine translation of the fantastic hint of the -Pan-figures with pipes and bell on a crawling bone-heap, veiled mourner and naked love crossing one another, the legs of a gallows-bird dangling between them from a pawnbroker's shop, and the scared philo-sopher hastening by with backward glance. Last of these may be enumerated the grotesque energy of the "Beggars' March." Then there are numerous little emblem-pieces, among them some charming fancies of the philosopher taking the world to his bosom, lashing it like a top, or stepping off it into starry metaphysical

* George Bell and Sons. 1898. † Not to be confused with his brilliant namesake, Mr. J. F. Sullivan, of the "British Workman." spaces. There is another of a Dandy before the candle-lit altar of his toilette table, reading the lesson for the day from "Pelham;" and one drawing brings together the "real" of a nude beauty regarding the fantastic "ideal" of her own dress—time 1830. Perhaps some of the little costume initial pieces might have been pruned away with advantage, for it is noticeable that our designer does his best when he has most to do. His instinct guided him right to Sartor, for the fantastic-in-real is his inspiration. The eye that smoulders with strange fire out of rags of flesh and clothing, a hint of fear in the familiar, is the power that has been given into his hands.

He has cultivated his talent assiduously. the apprenticeship on daily, weekly, and monthly journalism that either drills or drowns. Brilliant men have entered that course, and remained stuck with the perpetual subject of a frock-coat talking to a pair of sleeves that constitutes the illustration of novels. Mr. Sullivan has come through with few traces of such a deadening occupation, and has had the spirit to do this book for himself. It is to be hoped that the publisherundertakers will now see to it that he is engaged only on adequate material, and the sale of this book, if it meets its deserts, ought to prove to them the wisdom of such treatment. It certifies Mr. Sullivan's position among first-rate pen-draughtsmen. The modelling of some of the figures in these drawings with a pen-line is a feat that not a great many draughtsmen in could better, and this skill is at the service of thought and wit. We can see evidence of the study of many styles as we turn the pages-Menzel, Boyd-Houghton, Rafaëlli, Strang, are the names that suggest themselves most readily. But something personal emerges from the fusion—a curious intensity, a driving home of the image with sharp-cut, determined form, difficult to describe, and that no man borrows from another. D. S. M.

FINANCE.

THE Stock Exchange seldom succeeds in running two booms at the same time. Consequently during the past week the centre of interest has shifted from the American to the South African Market, in spite of the fact that Wall Street is apparently as busy as ever dealing in American securities. The sudden ever dealing in American securities. The sudden revival of interest in South African gold-mining shares has been most remarkable, and has taken on quite the dimensions of a boom. Indeed, many well-informed observers declare that the actual volume of business transacted during the past few days in this department was not surpassed at any time during the great boom There is no doubt that the time was ripe for such a revival, and the general conditions were wholly favourable. It is a long time since the political situa-tion seemed so secure. The Fashoda incident might have happened a year ago, so completely is it for-gotten; but the relations between France and England have undoubtedly been influenced for the better by it. In the midst of their first outburst of chagrin our neighbours in the bottom of their hearts respected us all the more for having refused to budge from our position, and the fashion in which the Sirdar and the Government have improved the occasion since the victory of Omdurman has made them respect us all the more. The French have quietly acquiesced in the virtual declaration of a British protectorate over the Sudan by Lord Cromer, and now are only anxious to bargain with us for the settlement of all outstanding differences. The rest of Europe has been similarly impressed by our attitude, and the truth has once more been demonstrated that the most powerful guarantee of peace is a Great Britain armed and ready to strike. The confidence which had been so shaken by our continual concessions has now been wholly restored, and the result is manifest in the increasing activity of trade and in the immensely greater volume of business transacted on the Stock Exchange.

The most powerful influence which has been at work during the account that has just ended is, however, the greater ease of the Money Market, itself a consequence in great part of the improved political

situation. The outlook at the present time is much more favourable than seemed possible so recently as the beginning of the New Year. Then, although it was certain that during January there would be for a time a period of ease in the monetary position, it was expected that with the advent of February conditions would again become more stringent. Now it is probable that this year even February will be an easy month. It is unlikely that there will be any great drain of gold to the States such as is customary in the second month of the year. American railway shares and gold bonds have been going across the Atlantic in such quantities have been going across the Atlantic in such quantities as almost to liquidate by themselves our trade indebtedness to the States, and if many still remain on this side, the continued and pressing demand by American investors for their own securities will in the end assuredly draw them across also. The special feature of the dealings in American securities of late has been the willingness of London and Berlin to sell at the prices now reached. European investors probably never expected to see the securities they have held quoted at their present prices: and since the Americans are willing their present prices; and since the Americans are willing to pay these prices, London and Berlin see no reason why they should not be allowed to gratify their newborn enthusiasm for their native securities. It may further be pointed out, as another reason for supposing that money will not be dearer next month, that nearly the whole of recent withdrawals of gold from London for the United States have not really been on American account at all. Japan has been drawing gold largely from San Francisco, and what New York has taken from London has been merely to supply the deficiency caused by this Japanese absorption.

Some surprise was felt, in view of the above considerations, when on Thursday the Directors of the Bank of England made no change in the Bank rate, which therefore remains at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., as fixed last week, and the surprise seemed justified by the very strong position revealed by the usual weekly return. On balance there was a slight efflux of gold to the Continent, amounting to £127,000; but this did not prevent the total reserve from increasing to £23,022,361, an improvement on last week of £919,456. The reserve is rather less than it was at the corresponding date a year ago, and the ratio of reserve to liabilities, which improved $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $44\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. on the week, is also $\frac{1}{8}$ lower than last year. This fact probably led the Directors to maintain the Bank rate at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and on the whole the cautious policy pursued is to be commended. As we have recently pointed out, very cheap money is by no means an unmixed blessing. When there is a glut of money, in their terror lest any balances should remain unemployed and unprofitable, banks naturally lend somewhat freely, not because they get high interest, but because if they do not lend they get no interest at all. An abundance of cheap money has therefore a tendency to foster speculation, and when speculation, thus fostered, begins to get a little out of hand, the banks begin to be alarmed by the monster they themselves have created, withdraw their support, and leave the speculative market in a last state that is very much worse than its first. The Scotch banks appear to be the greatest sinners in this game of playing literally fast and loose, and there is no doubt that the recent whisky crisis would never have come about had not the banks unduly fostered speculation in the trade.

The ease of the Money Market was reflected in the rates charged for carrying over Home Railway Stocks, which were in most cases light, and in the more cheerful aspect of the Home Railway Market itself. Most stocks showed satisfactory rises on the account, South-Eastern Deferred leading with an improvement of 6½. Chatham Second Preference rose 5, the First Preference 4 and South-Eastern Ordinary 3. The Great Northern "A" and Deferred Stocks also improved satisfactorily. The importance which is attached to the negotiations between the Metropolitan District and certain of the big companies, to which we have already referred, is shown by a further rise in the stock, which on Wednesday carried over 1½ higher, and on Thursday again went 3 points higher. At the end of October last Districts

could be bought at 26½. Now they have reached 38, from which it may be concluded that, in the opinion of the insiders, the negotiations are progressing satisfactorily. The advance in South-Eastern Stocks has been very persistent since that unlucky mistake in the dividend announcement last week; but it was checked on Thursday after the Chairman's speech, in which he stated that the South-Eastern's share of the joint traffic with the Chatham Company would only be 41 per cent. The traffic returns of the week were good, all the lines showing substantial increases, with the customary exceptions of the Metropolitan and Metropolitan District. The former reported an increase of £193 only; the latter a decrease of £69.

The railway dividends declared since last Saturday were, with one exception, very much what the market expected them to be. The Lancashire and Yorkshire disexpected them to be. The Lancashire and Yorkshire distribution of $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. with £22,000 forward, as against $5\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. for the corresponding half-year of 1897, with £21,495 forward, was what we predicted, and was an excellent showing, making the dividend for the whole of 1898 $5\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. The price has not yet moved up, however, in proportion to the dividend declaration, and, as our table of the yield of English railway stocks on the basis of the recent dividend declarations shows there is room for a considerable declarations shows, there is room for a considerable improvement in price, this line standing the highest but one in the list. In October last the price of Lancashire and Yorkshire stock was 144, the lowest of the year, but by the end of December it had risen to 150½. Now, after the dividend declaration, it only stands one point higher, at 1511, and should, as soon as the market can release itself from the mesmerism of the sudden spurt in South Africans, show a substantial advance. In South Africans, show a substantial advance. As an investment this company presents several favourable features, in addition to the fact that it gives a yield of nearly $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the investor at the present price. The second half of 1898 compares, it is true, with a half-year when the depression in the cotton trade and the engineering strike seriously affected the receipts of the Company. But the outlook for the present year is excellent. The cotton trade is good, and looks like being very much better. Moreover the Lancashire and Yorkshire has not to fear increased competition, and has been steadily improving its holiday and suburban traffic. The Company is well managed, and its traffic receipts are still expanding during the current year, so that the stock appears in every way an admirable investment. One does not need to be very old to remember the time when the Lancashire and Yorkshire was a byword and a disgrace in the two counties which it serves, as the Chatham and Dover is now in the Southern Counties. It seems at last as if, thanks to the new scheme of working in conjunction with the South-Eastern, the Chatham and Dover may one day follow the example of the Lancashire and Yorkshire, and develop into an admirable and profitable railway organisa-

The market opinion of the Chatham and Dover is evidently to this effect, and the dividend announcement made on Monday gives some slight ground for the favourable view. The dividend for the second half of 1898 is £2 5°°, or the full amount, on the Arbitration Preference Stock, with a balance forward of £79,591, as against £72,294 on 31 December, 1897. The dividend on the Second Preference is only declared at the end of the June half-year; but if the earnings during the current six months show only a slight increase the larger balance forward will admit of the payment of a Second Preference dividend of at least 3\frac{3}{4} per cent., or an increase of 1 per cent. on last year's distribution. Should even only a portion of the advantages which it is expected will be gained from the new working agreement be realised during the current half-year, a still higher distribution will be possible, and then the Ordinary Stock will be almost within sight of a dividend. It is not long ago since it seemed quite impossible that Chatham Second Prefs. would ever receive a dividend of 3\frac{3}{4} per cent. Under the circumstances we shall not be surprised if Chatham Ordinary Stock begins to attract the attention of those investors

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who can afford to lock up their money for a few years with the prospect of large profits in the end.

NET YIELD OF ENGLISH RAILWAYS.

	Dividend.		Price.		Yield.		i.		
						£	5.	d.	
Brighton "A"	***	$6\frac{3}{4}$		1841		3	13	3	
Lancs, and Yorks.	***	51		1515		3	9	3	
Brighton	***	6		191		3	6	9	
Chatham 1st pref.*				139				9	
,, 2nd ,, †		34		1185		3	3	3	
Metropolitan	***	34		1272		2	18	10	
South-Eastern	***			154				5	
South-Western		65		2222	•••	2	18	I	
Great Eastern		35		1247		2	18	0	
South-Western Def.	•••	21/2		91	***	2	14	II	
South-Eastern "A"		3	•••	1134		2	12	9	
* 1898-9 + 1898-9 estimated.									

The market's hopes about the South-Western dividend were grievously disappointed, for it was thought that with its very large increase in gross earnings during the second half of 1898, even in spite of very heavy extra charges, the Company would be able to pay $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for the half-year on the undivided stock, as it was able to do last year. The actual distribution is, however, only 8 per cent., and the balance forward is £4,722 less. The total dividend for the year on the undivided Ordinary is therefore only $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., as against 7 per cent. in 1897, giving a distribution of $2\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. in instead of 3 per cent. on the Deferred. Until the report is published it is scarcely possible to gather from the bare dividend announcement what are all the causes which have brought about a smaller distribution in dividends of nearly £35,000 for a half-year during which the gross receipts increased more than £100,000. In the June half some £29,000 more was spent upon coal, and since the coal strike lasted well on towards the end of 1898, no doubt the same cause has contributed towards the falling off in the net earnings of the second half of the year. But this can certainly not account for the whole of the enormous increase in expenditure. Increased capital charges will account for another £14,000, and the smaller balance forward at the beginning of the second half for another £8,000. Increased wages, no doubt, also enter into the account; but it seems possible that the new Waterloo and City Railway may count for something in the diminished dividend.

Wall Street still continues to cry out for American securities, apparently often at any price, and buying appears to be continuing there as gaily as ever. In spite of all the bonds and shares that have gone from this side of the Atlantic to New York, the Americans still continue to cry for more. Here and in Berlin a much soberer attitude of mind is maintained. It is considered that prices have now been put up to such a height in many instances that there is imminent danger of their toppling over at any moment, and that the wisest policy is, therefore, to stand clear and watch developments, possibly with the idea of catching something when the fall comes. It is believed, moreover, that even in Wall Street the big people are unloading as rapidly as possible on to the bonâ fide investors who are clamouring so loudly for mitive securities. It is possible, of course, that they will succeed in unloading; that the investors will go back home hugging their homeborn bonds and shares closely to their bosoms; and that there will consequently be no slump. In a few cases prices may even be put higher, and on this side there may be some hardy operators who will dart in to snatch a profit from the edge of the precipice.

There is one case, however, in which a further important advance in the American market can be safely predicted. The scheme for the reorganisation of the Central Pacific is now practically agreed upon, and there is little doubt that it will go through. As it stands, it is favourable enough to Central Pacific share-holders, and although Central Pacifics have risen from 11 at the beginning of 1898 to over 48 at present, the reorganisation scheme will in all probability cause them to advance immediately from 5 to 8 dollars more. The

plan of reorganisation, we understand, proposes to give a Southern Pacific share for each Central Pacific share, and, in addition, one 4 per cent. Mortgage gold bond for every four Central Pacific shares. The two lines will thus be brought under the same management; each will benefit by the other's success, and it will no longer be possible for the Southern Pacific to starve the Central Pacific for its own advantage. It seems probable that the scheme when it is published in its entirety will besatisfactory to both parties to the dispute that has lasted so long. Until 1882 the Central Pacific was able to pay regular dividends of 6 per cent., and its shares were worth 105½ dollars. Then came the control of the Southern Pacific: the dividends fell away to nothing, and the price fell to 11. But already to the end of June last the Central Pacific had earned a surplus equal to a dividend of 2½ per cent. Under the new arrangement, and with the prospects of active trade in the States, it should before long be able to earn 6 per cent. as it did before, and then no doubt the price of the equivalent shares in the Southern Pacific will approximate to the old level. Messrs. Speyer Bros. have the arrangement of the scheme in their hands, and their great success in the reorganisation of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad is of good augury for the success of the Central Pacific plan. Eight months ago Baltimore and Ohio Common Stock stood at 13½. It is now quoted at 76. If Messrs. Speyer Bros. have the same success with the Central Pacific, they should receive a handsome testimonial from those who benefit by the scheme.

"Has it come to stay?" was the anxious question everyone in the South African Market was asking when the "boom" came suddenly and took them unawares a week ago. Apparently it has come to stay; for, unlike previous spurts, the dealing has been genuine public dealing, and not a mere professional game with prices. Our readers will have long been prepared for some movement of this kind; for we have always insisted on the essential difference between the gold-mining industry of the Witwatersrand and goldmining enterprises in any other part of the world. The peculiar character of the Banket formation makesgold-mining on the Rand a scientific and engineering pursuit, and not a mere question of luck; whilst the large amount of capital which has been invested in the industry has attracted the cleverest engineering and metallurgical experts to the field. The consequence is that established dividend-paying mines on the Rand are permanent investments, the profit and duration of which can be so easily calculated as to put them on a level with the highest class of industrial enterprises. Instead of the profits being necessarily large in order to cover the risk incident to other forms of gold-mining, the value of South African gold shares tends always to reach such a level that the return to the investor, after allowing for the redemption of the capital invested when the mine is exhausted, is about the same as that of a sound home industrial concern. And even this leaves a larger margin of profit than the home industry; for not only are the lives of the mines calculated on such a conservative basis that in most cases they are likely to be considerably exceeded in actual working, but also continual improvements in the processes of gold extraction tend to increase the yield of gold and to diminish the cost of production. Once these considerations come to be present in the mind of the more intelligent of investors, they perceive that the value of shares in the gold-mines of the Witwatersrand is to be assessed on quite a different basis from that upon which the valueof Westralian or Klondike ventures is to be assessed. The South African mines work in the full blaze of More information concerning the working of the mines is supplied than is the case with any other mining region of the world, and it is, moreover, information which can, in the majority of instances, be relied upon implicitly. It is not surprising, therefore, that, after a stagnation of more than twelve months, during which time the industry has been advancing by leaps and bounds, the moment that attention is directed to the condition of the market there should be a rush of buyers; and since, during the quiet times, the wise and foreseeing have been laying in a stock of all the most valuable descriptions, when the rush of buyers came it found the market almost denuded of shares, which are now mainly held by people who know their value, and who are not willing to sell except at a price which fairly represents that value.

Some uneasiness was felt in the market on Tuesday in consequence of the high contango rates which were charged for carrying over shares. It was feared that these indicated an inflated and weak bull account, and that the activity was destined to be only short-lived. The truth was that the market was quite unprepared for the sudden inrush of buyers and the takers-in of shares could command high prices for their services. At the next account, should the activity continue, probably matters will have been adjusted, and rates will tend to become more normal. But 9 to 10 per cent. is in no way a heavy contango to pay on mining shares. In 1895 as much as 25 to 30 per cent. was often paid. One of the most satisfactory features of the buying has been its discriminating character. The rush has been for the sound and valuable concerns, and the rubbish, of which naturally there is plenty in the market, has been left alone. Towards the end of the week, it is true, a few shares of no great value were rushed up; but these exceptions do not alter the main fact that the buying has been not wild, but wise and discriminating. After the attention we have given to individual mines, our readers will not need much guidance to enable them to readers will not need much guidance to enable them to select most profitable shares. Robinson Deeps, concerning whose prospects we wrote more than a year ago, have risen suddenly from under 10 to over 13, the reason being that there were no shares on offer, and that a few buying orders speedily lifted the price more than three points. We estimate that the Robinson Deep will ultimately earn dividends of account and that the shares are ago. dividends of 200 per cent., and that the shares are certainly cheap at £15.

Another deep level undertaking of which much more will be heard shortly is the New Steyn Estate. This Company owns 600 claims immediately to the south of the Roodepoort Central Deep and the Durban Roodepoort Deep, and it will, we understand, shortly float a poort Deep, and it will, we understand, shortly float a subsidiary company to work a portion of its claims which recent developments in the mines to the north indicate to be worthy of immediate attention. The Roodepoort Central Deep is developing beyond all expectation, and it is believed that the rich shoot of the Durban Roodepoort mine is continued into the Roodepoort Central Deep. If this is the case, it will pass immediately into the property of the New Steyn Estate. The financial position of the latter Company is moreover exceedingly favourable. the latter Company is moreover exceedingly favourable. It has cash in hand or in realisable assets of £200,000, and probably more, since it holds a number of Rand Mines shares which have recently increased enormously in value. Moreover, it has an income from licenses averaging £6,000 a year; and since the capital of the Company is only £240,000, these assets represent a value of quite £1 per share. The 600 claims it possesses are, therefore, at the present market price of the shares valued at less than £400 apiece. The Roodeshares valued at less than £400 apiece. The Roode-poort Central Deep claims immediately to the north are valued at £4,000 each at the present market price, so that the New Steyn Estate shares at 2½ seem remarkably cheap.

But amongst all the undertakings concerned in the Transvaal gold-mining industry the most valuable is without doubt the great Corporation known as Rand Mines, Limited. It is the most valuable because, thanks to the sagacity of its founders, it has owned or controlled and has brought to the productive stage many of the most productive mines of the Rand. We have often predicted in these columns that one day the shares of this great Corporation would be worth more than £40. Last night the shares were dealt in at 403, and within the next few days they will certainly go a good deal higher than this figure, for mentioning which we have often been scoffed at by less well-informed con-temporaries. The reason for the sudden advance after the improvement of the past week is that it has finally been decided that Rand Mines shares shall be

split into more manageable fractions, and at the meeting of the Corporation in March next a proposal will be brought forward to divide each existing share into brought forward to divide each existing share into-four shares of the value of 5s. each, that is to say, into shares the value of which will be at the present market price about £10. $_{*}$ One reason why Rand Mines have never been appraised at their proper value has been the unwieldiness of the shares. Now that this obstacle to the appreciation of their value is to be removed, we venture to revise our former estimate, and to predict that the new shares will eventually be quoted at a price equivalent to £60 for the old Rand Mines share.

The further and large advance in the price of copper must make a very considerable difference to the profitsof those copper mines already in the producing stage, and the value of copper shares is consequently beginning to rise steadily. At the end of last year Rio Tintos, for instance, stood at £32, the price at the beginning of instance, stood at £32, the price at the beginning of 1898 being only about £25. Now they are quoted at nearly £36, and are still rising. When we learn that last year the Rio Tinto sold its product for £51 a ton, and that its sales this week have been at the price of £68 per ton, the advance in value of the shares is not to be wondered at. We understand, moreover, that the Rio Tinto Company has been offered £70 a ton for the whole of its output during the present year. As the cost of production of Rio Tinto copper may be put at £25 per ton, and 30,000 tons are produced every year, £25 per ton, and 30,000 tons are produced every year, this would mean a profit of £1,350,000, equivalent to a dividend on the Ordinary shares, after paying the Preference and Debenture interest, of 70 per cent., or a yield to the investor at the present price of 10 per cent. Under the circumstances, therefore, Rio Tintos seem likely to go still higher. In this connection we may note also that Anacondas, to which we drew attention some weeks ago, when they stood at less than £6 pershare, last night were bid for up to £8 15s. on strong American buying, and closed at £8 11s. 3d. The present magnificent prospects of the mine fully warrant this and even a much higher valuation.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE MISTAKES OF AN AGITATOR.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—To have a page of the SATURDAY all to myself is really too much. What have I done to deserve this? In order to assist, even if feebly, in the task of stimulating public opinion in favour of more attention being given to the education of our people, I put together, purely as a labour of love—the only benefit I have received from it so far is the pleasure of paying the posterial profiles to gueries where it may be obtained. postage in replies to queries where it may be obtaineda little pamphlet of some 35 pages of facts and figures-respecting the existing condition of Elementary Educa-tion in England and Wales. In this pamphlet I deal with the questions of school attendance; of the effect of education upon crime; of the early age at which so many of the children leave the elementary schools; of the factory half-time system; of the quality and quantity of the teaching staff supplied to the schools; of the wages paid to that staff; and of the cost of financing the schools. You say your earnestness on the subject of national education led you to read this pamphlet, which The fruit of your labour is seen in last week's You devote a couple of columns of strong critiis good. issue. cism to one section of the pamphlet only—that dealing with the financing of the schools and my contrasts with what other countries are spending. I may take it, therefore, that you scoured the rest of the pamphlet for points of attack and scoured in vain. Indeed, in the end you have to fall back upon my obviously inadvertent use of the word capitum for capita (it was not "a printer's error," but my own), and in order to satisfy yourself that you had sufficiently pulverised me before, in the time-honoured manner, "leaving me to my friends on the School Board and to the teachers I purport to represent."

But why all this violence? Primarily apparently

But why all this violence? Primarily, apparently,

because I am what you style "An Agitator." Secondly, because to this disgusting circumstance I have added the revolting crime of having once been "An Elementary Teacher." But now for your elaborately wiredrawn criticism. I say in this despicable little pamphlet that the cost of educating a child worked out last year in the county boroughs at £2 5s. 6\frac{1}{2}d. You say this is not the whole cost, but merely the "maintenance" charge. I agree. To have been absolutely precise the year's account should have been debited with some arbitrarily fixed fraction of the capital charge for school arbitrarily fixed fraction of the capital charge for school buildings and the cost of administration and inspection. But I must ask one who is so very precise not to put what he estimates as the whole cost for all the schools, Board and Voluntary, Rural and Urban, into contrast with my figure for the county boroughs.

Then you object to the following statement:-" Mr. Hanbury on 15 May, 1896, in reply to Sir Charles Dilke, stated that, taking the dollar at 4s., the cost of education per child in the Common Schools of the United States was, in 1892-3, £3 13s. $9\frac{1}{2}d$." You say quite properly that this is intended "to point a contrast unfavourable to England, and to suggest a mistaken par-simony in the figure quoted for English education at £2 55. 64d." Exactly; that is my purpose. But you urge that a good deal of this American money must be written off (in this contrast), since it is spent on higher public education. Very good. Meanwhile, do you care to print the full text of the question and answer? If so, your readers may well be left to point their own

Sir Charles Dilke (Gloucester, Forest of Dean): I beg to ask the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, in reference to a statement to the effect that the expenditure of the English public on education is £14,000,000 a year, whether it is known to the Education Department what is the extent of public expenditure in the United States upon similar services, and whether it is the case that as long ago

States upon similar services, and whether it is the case that as long ago as 1889 that expenditure was estimated at £28,000,000, and is now, for elementary schools alone, vastly higher.

Mr. Hanbury (for Sir John Gorst): From the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, it appears that the total expenditure on "common schools," which are defined as including public day schools of elementary and secondary grade—i.e. public primary, grammar, and high schools—was in 1889-90 (taking a dollar as 4s.) £28,622,043, or £3 8s. 10d. per scholar in average attendance; and in 1892-93 £32,668,655, or £3 13s. 9½d. per scholar in average

Then you complain that I contrast the Army and Navy Expenditure for the United Kingdom with the Education Expenditure for England and Wales only. Here your criticism is a fair one, I admit. But when Here your criticism is a fair one, I admit. But when you go on to argue that I have no right to put the £2 6s. per annum school "maintenance" charge into contrast with the £39 16s. 2d. convict prison "maintenance" charge—seeing that "maintenance" in the one case means a good deal less than it does in the other—I object. The State has to pay £2 6s. a year for the school child and £39 16s. 2d. for the convict. Dialectically, it may not be admissible to contrast these two. But I scarcely think the taxpayer will share your pice sense of differentiation. My point is that he has nice sense of differentiation. My point is that he has to pay both, and that if he went in more thoroughly for the public concern which the former supplies, he would be materially relieved in respect of the latter. That is all; and I am absolutely unrepentant for having instituted this comparison.

But, however, as I am only a mere "Agitator" (please do not speak of me as the representative of the National Union of Teachers on the London School Board; the description is not correct), here are a couple of recent comments on the situation which may possibly

have weight with some of your readers :-

There is no doubt that, unless we intend the English people to become the hewers of wood and the drawers of water for the world, we must make them as well prepared for the work they have to do as are foreign workmen.—Sir JOHN GORST, at Longton, 19th November 1800. ber, 1897.

You cannot graft a scientific and artistic education upon the stunted stump of a defective elementary education.—DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE,

After the disaster at Jena in 1806, the Prussians, steadily and with fixed purpose, initiated a great and national work. They reaped the harvest in 1870-71. At the present moment their high intellectual and commercial equipment is being turned in another direction.

The struggle is not so conspicuous because it does not lend itself to graphic descriptions and instantaneous

photographs from the front. But it is going relent-lessly on. Is it the business of the SATURDAY REVIEW to strengthen the hands of those who would keep our people committed to the educational cross-bows and blunderbusses of an earlier age?—I am, Sir, your obedient Servant,

T. J. MACNAMARA.

[Mr. Macnamara will not complain that we have stinted him in respect of space. He admits that his argument in three instances was based on a false comparison. He does not admit that his contrast of the maintenance of a convict with that of a school child is unsound, unless dialectically. He is a fortunate man. To most of us the difference between £2 6s, and £39 16s. 2d. is something more than dialectical. We do object to Mr. Macnamara's rôle of agitator, but the fact that he was once an elementary school teacher is all in his favour.-ED. S. R.]

"THE FOUNDATIONS OF ENGLAND."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

31 Alfred Place West, S.W.

SIR,-My attention has been drawn to a question asked of me, in your columns, by a writer who seems curiously anxious to give no clue to his identity beyond stating that he is "plain." I should hardly have thought it worth while to occupy your valuable space by elaborat-ing a "simple" question, which occupies no fewer than fourteen lines before we reach the note of interrogation? But I am quite ready to answer it.

Mr. Freeman, as I have shown from the outset, contradicted himself flatly in his views on the lines in question. In his first edition he printed them as dequestion. In his first edition he printed them as describing "firm barricades of ash and other timber, wattled in so close together that not a crevice could be seen." He spoke of this defence as "a palisade with a triple gate of entrance," and wrote of "its wooden walls." We further learn that "the French infantry" had "to break down the palisade" while "the English, from behind their barricades, mocked . . . every foe who entered or who strove to enter."

In his second edition, for which he had "gone minutely through every line, and corrected or improved whatever seemed to need it," Mr. Freeman transferred the lines to an Appendix (pp. 763-4), where he groups them with William of Malmesbury's "conserta ante se scutorum testudine" (from which, I maintain, they were derived) as giving "the fullest descriptions" that we get "of the array of the shield-wall" as employed at the battle of Maldon (991), which illustrates, he wrote, the "battle on Senlac," and where, he elsewhere has told us, the English "formed the shield-wall, a sort of fortress made by holding their shields close together.'

As the alleged palisade was, according to him, a novel introduction in 1066, it is certain that this Maldon shield-wall alone is stated by Mr. Freeman, in the above Appendix, to be described by Wace's lines. The contradiction, therefore, is complete; nor has the rendering

WHYTE-MELVILLE'S WORKS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW. 49 Lennox Gardens, S.W.

SIR,-Permit me, in justice to the publishers and myself, to refer to the criticism in your issue of 14th inst. I admit that it is well founded, but submit that I am not wholly to blame, as the following circumstances

may tend to show.

When the works were put into my hands, I wrote two introductory notices, one for "Riding Recollections," analysing Whyte-Melville's doctrine from a tions," analysing Whyte-Melville's doctrine from a technical point of view, the other a general one, for the series of novels. Judge of my dismay, on "Riding Recollections" appearing first, to find that the printers had prefaced it with the introduction intended for the novels, and wholly inappropriate for a treatise on horse-manship. All I could do was to patch up in haste something to serve for the series of novels.—I am, Sir, was abedient servered. HERBERT MAXWELL. your obedient servant.

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REVIEWS.

DEMOCRACY AND GLADSTONE.

"Democracy and Liberty." By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. New edition. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1899.

WHEN Mr. Lecky's book on "Democracy and Liberty" first appeared we pointed out in these columns what seemed to us to be its defects. We thought the philosophy singularly commonplace, and for so clever a man Mr. Lecky struck us as being strangely under the influence of generalities, which were evidently the result of wide reading rather than experience. The book hardly deserved a new edition, though we are not sorry that the publishers have given us these two very portable volumes, as Mr. Lecky has taken the opportunity to write an introduction, which is more interesting and valuable than the rest of the book put together. An ounce of practice is worth a ton of theory, and there is no better corrective of the conclusions of the study than the experience of the House of Commons. The Introduction is informed by that close critical sense which nothing but actual contact with politics can bestow. Mr. Lecky's discontact with politics can bestow. Mr. Lecky's distrust of modern democracy is intensified, as every intelligent man's must be, by seeing le dessous des cartes in a large assembly elected by a low franchise. A glance abroad over the continents of Europe and America is not calculated to dissipate the distrust. In Austria, in Italy, in France, in Brazil, demo-cratic parliaments are not working creditably. In the cratic parliaments are not working creditably. In the United States Bryanism, Republican trusts and Tammany are ugly and disquieting facts. The only country that gives Mr. Lecky pause is his own. Here in England Mr. Lecky is forced to admit that the democratic machine works smoothly and safely. But, then, that is because "we are all Socialists now;" because the power of the Executive has for the time crushed all opposition; and because the personality of our leaders opposition; and because the personality of our leaders is so conciliatory and so unassailable. Mr. Lecky thinks that the disappearance of party principles and the almost despotic power of the Government obviate the dangers of democracy. They may do that, but they bring other evils in their train. When there are no principles to fight for, men scramble for places; and already we have noticed a tendency, in recent appointments, to revert to the eighteenth-century system of dividing appointments amongst the friends or relations of Ministers. Mr. Lecky, however, is clear that the present preponderance of the Unionist party cannot last—not for a generation, we agree, but pro-bably for another Parliament.

The part of the introduction which has naturally excited the greatest interest in the public—"καὶ ἀεὶ περὶ ἀνθρώπων τοὺς λόγους ποιοῦσι"—is Mr. Lecky's appreciation of Mr. Gladstone. It is not exactly a friendly portrait, but it is to our mind a just one, drawn evidently from long acquaintance with the original. Political speeches may be divided into those which are literature and those which are not. Burke's speeches of course are classics. Disraeli's speeches on the Corn-laws—a dry enough subject—are as good reading to-day as the Letters of Junius. No one who cares for oratory as a fine art can dip into the speeches of Grattan or of Bright without a feeling of delight. On the other hand, few, even the keenest politicians, can wade through the speeches of Pitt the younger, of Fox, of Peel, of Palmerston, of Gladstone, without asking himself, What was the secret of these men's influence? The speeches which are the best reading are not always the best hearing: one is almost tempted to say that the effect of a speech is in the inverse ratio of its literary quality. But that would be an exaggeration. It is true, however, to say that the effect of a speech upon the audience depends primarily upon the possession by the speaker of certain physical advantages, secondarily upon his character, and only in a subordinate degree upon its literary merits. Burke never could gain the ear of the House; he was too long; his voice was unpleasant; and the taint of the Irish adventurer clung to him. Some of Disraeli's most celebrated efforts were failures in the delivery. The "extinct volcanos" speech at the Pomona

Gardens in Manchester was inaudible except to a few round the platform. In justice to Glada few round the platform. In justice to Glad-stone, it must be said that one or two of his speeches delivered in his prime, upon the Reform Bill of 1867, and upon the Disestablishment of the Irish Church, can still be read for their rhetorical beauty. But most of his orations were, like those of Pitt and Peel, made for the business in hand; and it is difficult for anyone who has not been "sous la baguette du magicien". anyone who has not been soust a baguette dumagneter to understand the enormous enthusiasm they aroused. As Mr. Lecky truly says, Gladstone was a first-rate actor; and he was gifted with what throat-doctors call a very fine set of vocal chords. His every movement was picturesque; his very dress was artistic; and the parsonic cadence of his delivery could not fail to stir a public that has an inbred preference for pulpit eloquence. As for his principles, it has not been suffi-ciently noticed that Gladstone divided his long public life with almost perfect impartiality between the two political parties. He was for twenty-nine years—from 1830 to 1859-a member of the Conservative party; for Liberals—to destruction. "Mr. Gladstone," said a witty Frenchman, "is far cleverer than Lord Beaconsfield; for he does the same things, and persuades you that he does not do them." Despite of his piety, and dignified manners, Gladstone was a demoralising influence in politics, for there was not a principle which he did not bend and twist into a polemic, not a duty which he did not turn into a doubt. He had one moral peculiarity which Mr. Lecky has not noticed: he was always particularly civil to those who attacked him most violently. Mr. Jennings dissected Gladstone's career in what Mr. Lecky rightly calls "a very remarkcareer in what Mr. Lecky rightly calls "a very remarkable book." Gladstone professed not to have read the book; but he went out of his way to be polite to Mr. Jennings in the House of Commons. His friends ascribed this peculiarity to magnanimity: his opponents to a meaner motive. Perhaps the greatest tribute to Gladstone's genius is the undoubted fact that, even when his politics were repudiated, his personal popularity remained, though curiously it abated after death. As a rule, death canonises a great name.

S. THOMAS OF CANTERBURY.

"S. Thomas of Canterbury: his Death and Miracles." By Edwin A. Abbott, M.A., D.D. 2 vols. London: A. and C. Black. 1898.

DR. ABBOTT is well known in the learned world as an acute student of the early Christian literature. He is an advanced member of the new critical school, and a close and cogent reasoner. In these handsome and attractive volumes he trespasses on another's sphere, but he carries with him his own interests. He invades the fairyland of mediæval history in order to gather materials for his critical warfare. The Lives of S. Thomas of Canterbury, conveniently collected into the substantial publications of the Master of the Rolls, suggested a useful parallel to the sacred biographies of the New Testament. In both cases there were four separate accounts of the same facts, and, equally in both, the fourth and latest was supplemental to the other three; both were full of miraculous episodes and discrepancies difficult to harmonise, yet both conveyed a substantially just version of the Lives they severally professed to narrate. Dr. Abbott draws out his conclusions with care and lucidity in a chapter headed "The Martyr and the Saviour." This method of belittling the miraculous element in the Gospels by reducing the documents to the common category of hagiological literature is, of course, by no means original. Professor Huxley used it with his wonted energy. It is, indeed, a very common argument, though we have rarely seen it stated with such care and worked out in such detail as by Dr. Abbott in these volumes. We are far from disputing its value for some purposes. The mental conditions under which the Evangelists wrote must be justly appreciated before the religious student can hope to get at the facts of the Evangelist history. That the words and acts of Christ, as we read them in the New Testament, have passed through the medium of minds, honest, indeed, as the daylight, but

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in many respects credulous and ill-informed, seems to How much has to be allowed for the influence of that medium; by what tests the original fact is to be distinguished from its literary embellishments; how the line is to be drawn between the natural and the supernatural, the historic and the traditional-these and numerous kindred questions form the problem with which New Testament criticism must grapple. Abbott writes with becoming reverence, and frankly recognises the gulf which parts the Personality of the Saviour from that of the martyred Archbishop; but we do not think he really grasps the essential dissimilarity between the two cases. Moreover, he ignores altogether two considerations which yet seem vital to a just estimate of the Gospel. On the one hand, the fact of the Resurrection is not merely attested by the reports of witnesses: it is sustained by the original institutions of Christendom-e.g. the Eucharist and the Lord's Day-and perpetually witnessed by the living energy of the Christian Society. On the other hand, the unique character of Christ, as pourtrayed in His recorded words and acts, prohibits comparison and almost requires a supernatural vesture for His Life. Certainly the evidential power of miracles is not great in the judgment of the modern mind: the old order is reversed. Once men believed in the Divinity of Christ because the claim was authenticated by prodigies; now they tolerate the prodigies because they believe the Divinity. As helping towards a science of human testimony, we cordially welcome such inquiries as these of Dr. Abbott, but we disallow the suggestion that they can lead us across the borders of criticism, and carry light into the

sacred territory of religious faith.

S. Thomas of Canterbury, whose martyrdom and miracles are here related and criticised, is one of the most fascinating figures of English history. His characteristic faults exempt him from the unnatural and monotonous type of mediæval saints, and invest him with the attributes of a secular hero striving in an ecclesiastical cause. His history illustrates the actual condition of medieval Christendom. The international character of the Church comes into view when we find the King of England's conflict with the Archbishop of Canterbury entering into the high politics of Europe. The antagonism between the Pope's spiritual duty and his political passesities rises into the propersions. his political necessities rises into sharp prominence as we watch him alternately supporting and deserting the Archbishop's cause, taking Henry's bribes, and plotting against his interests, waxing eloquent for the Archbishop's rights, or turning a deaf ear to his most urgent appeals precisely as the political horizon was clear or clouded in that formidable quarter, whence anti-Popes were ever emerging to contest possession of the Pontifical throne. S. Thomas himself reveals the curious dualism of that strange time. He is the lofty exponent of Divine Claims, and he shocks his own followers by the violence of his language when exasperated by insult. Surely the most human of all the saints, and, perhaps, on that very account the most popular. His cause was that of the Church, and therefore his reputation has suffered greatly at the hands of those to whom the Church conveys few other notions than those of fraud and corruption; but with the better understanding of mediæval history which has marked this century, the character of the Mediæval Church has been cleared of calumny, and the fame of her most conspicuous champion has shone again with new brightness. Dean Milman's estimate of S. Thomas has been finally discarded for that of Bishop Stubbs. Clerical privileges are judged with reference to mediæval conditions of life, the standards of modern Liberalism. judged, they are seen to be not the creations of sacerdotal craft imposed on barbaric credulity, but rather the sheltering arm of a humane jurisdiction extended over the most helpless members of society. The martyr for Church privileges was also the hero of the people. "It was not the Saxon against the Norman, it was the poor and weak oppressed against the rich and strong oppressor, that everywhere—alike in England and France and through the Latin-speaking world—rose up in the might of S. Thomas the Martyr, and decreed that he must be a saint, even before the Papal edict had made him one. Most of those healed in the days of the earliest miracles

have English names. But their passionate reverence and their wonder-working faith did not rise in their hearts from patriotic motives, because they were 'English born.' It was because they were wronged, or liable to be wronged, that they took up the cause for which the New Martyr of the English had shed his blood. The Church, though sometimes defective and corrupt, was nevertheless felt by the poor to be often their only protection against outrages, and the Martyr typified her championing spirit."

It is no doubt true that the Shrine of S. Thomas of Canterbury soon became the centre of a thriving and profitable commerce. Cures were commonly effected by means of water with which some drops of the Martyr's blood were, or were believed to be, mingled. The sacred mixture was exported to the Continent in large quantities, and purchased by the myriads of pilgrims who from all parts of Christendom visited the Martyr's Tomb. It was customary in many parish churches to keep a supply for the use of parishioners. Religious commerce is inevitably degraded, for it is essentially illegitimate. The description which Erasmus gives of his visit to Canterbury in company with Colet indicates that the cultus of the Martyr ceased to command the respect of good and thoughtful men. The violence with which the Shrine was destroyed did not wholly lack excuse: yet, indignation at the later abuses must not blind us to the honourable origins of that profound and protracted veneration.

A CRITIC OF RHODESIA.

"Rhodesia and its Government." By H. C. Thomson. London: Smith, Elder, and Co. 1898.

RHODESIA has attracted the attention of more IN writers than any other country with so short a history, probably because it is the first colony in which it has been possible to watch the origin and develop-ment of the new order. The other British possessions were acquired before the age of telegrams. Well-worn as Mr. Thomson's subject is, he has much to say that is worth hearing, and he speaks with candour and, on the whole, with marked fairness. South African travel is almost as bewildering as the study of South African literature. Every new acquaintance seems to disagree in essential points with previous informants; the facts are not easy to ascertain, and inference is infinite. Thus the inquirer finds his "principes and ideas," to use Mr. Thomson's phrase, "tossed about in a mental whirlpool" before they can "crystallise into definite shape." The most opposite opinions can appear plausible, for they can claim the authority of those who should be experts. It is evident that there can be no authoritative verdict but that of history; in the meantime we can be grateful to Mr. Thomson for his judgment, for his summing up of the situation, marked, as it is, by some notable merits. He but speaks the truth when he says that he "has made himself in a great measure the mouthpiece of strongly felt and conflicting opinions," for in his pages officials, missionaries, miners, policemen, politicians, all speak for themselves. The result, we take it, is an eclectic creed, which will by many readers be considered to bear the stamp of impartiality. For Mr. Thomson has avoided the extravagances of partisanship: he is as severe a critic of President Kruger as of Mr. Rhodes. His voice cries aloud in the African wilderness that everybody is wrong, and he sustains this thesis (which probably he would be the first to disclaim) with much ability. The book is loosely constructed, consisting as it does of notes of a recent journey in South Africa, interspersed with critical remarks on South African affairs; but this very want of system is not without its attractions. Occasionally the "opinions conflict" rather attractions. Occasionally the "opinions conflict" rather abruptly. It is startling, for instance, to be told upon one page that "Mr. Rhodes' record in Rhodesia has been written in blood," and to find later on that "during the rebellion Mr. Rhodes has always pleaded earnestly for clemency; . . . from the first he has urged the expediency as well as the justice of mercy." The fact seems to be that Mr. Thomson vacillates between the positions of advocate and historian, with the not unfortunate result that his readers obtain from him the materials for judgments of their own. him the materials for judgments of their own.

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It is a little difficult to understand why so few people can speak calmly of Rhodesia, why the morals of its colonists and the character of its soil have alike furnished a battleground for violent partisanship. Perhaps it is because finance is nowadays so inextricably mingled with politics that the ordinary anti-Rhodesian cannot declare his disbelief in the auriferous source of the region without insulting the people who nature of the region without insulting the people who have been venturesome enough to lead the way in a new country. Mr. Thomson is far removed from these absurdities. He expressly disclaims any right to form opinions on matters which come within the province of a mining expert, and he protests against the vapourings of dishonest or hysterical critics. He might almost be said to hold a brief for the white colonists of Rhodesia, while he is at the same time a very bitter opponent of the Chartered Company. Now in Rhodesia itself almost every man is either a devoted friend or an implacable enemy of the Company. This same Company has made many mistakes, but it is sometimes forgotten that it started with many disadvantages. Mr. Thomson considers that it has violated the conditions of its Charter, and that the Charter should accordingly be repealed. and that the Charter should accordingly be repealed. If we confine our attention to the internal administra-tion of its territories, we shall not find that the Company is such a blot upon the face of South Africa as its enemies maintain. It was compelled to administer a new and huge territory with inadequate tools. When Matabeleland was first occupied, it was necessary to employ in the administration men who had practical acquaintance with the Kaffir languages and customs; which, though deeply interesting to the ethnologist, do not always foster the more refined virtues in those who have lived amongst them. Consequently some of the officials were unworthy of their posts, but these men have since been removed. The Company recruited a force of Matabela police premyuraly and this attempt a force of Matabele police prematurely, and this attempt to govern the people by the people led to disaster; for the raw Kaffir cannot safely be clothed with even the briefest authority. The Company, in its haste to develop the new territories, leased out far too much to subsidiary companies, and the effects of this mistake will be felt later on. Finally, the Company, having conquered a race of turbulent slave-holders, required the Matabele indunas to supply, at a fair rate of wages, the labour necessary for the due development of natural resources. The Matabele certainly disliked the labour regulations, but principally because these regulations made no distinction between Matabele warrior and Maholi serf. Mr. Thomson makes a strong case against this "forced labour," and undoubtedly the Company made a very great mistake in issuing the labour regulations without duly considering the nature of the powers which belonged to it under the Charter. But to compare with slavery, as some have done, the Rhodesian labour system—which is very much less onerous than the corvée in Egypt or the begar in Chitral—will seem to any careful reader of this book to be mere absurdity. As regards the general treatment of the natives, Mr. Thomson states that the Company must have expended nearly £250,000 in feeding the starving Matabele at the end of the rebellion, and he gives them due credit for this generosity. Individual cases of ill-treatment there were undoubtedly, but Mr. Thomson rightly refuses to generalise from these. He repels even with some heat the indiscriminate charges of cruelty and immorality brought against the Rhodesian colonists by irresponsible writers, and in spite of pre-conceived notions declares the use of dynamite in Mashona warfare to be legitimate.

With some of his views it is impossible to agree, as when, in his anxiety to show that the Company forced

Lobengula into war, he suggests that the Imperial Government might have extended to the Matabele King the Protectorate that it exercised over Khama. A little more acquaintance with South Africa would have shown him that a system under which the un-warlike Bamangwato live at peace would never have curbed the Matabele impis. Colonial history has proved repeatedly that a fierce Kaffir tribe existing for war cannot remain for long quiescent upon the white man's frontier. And yet Mr. Thomson finds in some words of Mr. Rhodes, which simply show that the Cape Premier understood the history of Sandile, Cetewayo,

Sekukuni, and their peers, evidence of a sinister design to force a quarrel upon Lobengula.

To Mr. Rhodes, indeed, this book is less than just. Whatever may be thought of his share in Cape politics, his work in the North calls for admiration. Mr. Thomson recognises his great qualities, but tion. Mr. Thomson recognises his great qualities, but is uneasy at the predominance of one man, and even foresees a general struggle of free industry against the capitalism of which Mr. Rhodes is the representative. But Mr. Rhodes is not as some other capitalists; and the workmen of Cape Town, who should understand their own affairs, do not share Mr. Thomson's fears. His criticism of the concentration in one person of the offices of Governor of Cape Colony and High Commissioner of South Africa is to some extent well grounded; for Sir Alfred Milner is compelled to be at the same time a constitutional sovereign within Cape Colony, a benevolent autocrat in Basutoland and the "Bechuanaland Protectorate," a shadowy overlord in Natal and Zululand, a British Basutoland and the "Bechuanaland Protectorate," a shadowy overlord in Natal and Zululand, a British Ambassador to the Orange Free State, and a sort of blend of suzerain and counsel with a "watching" brief in the Transvaal. But the suggestion to appoint a High Commissioner, whose duty would be confined to the supervision of native affairs throughout South Africa, would lead to the clashing of incompatible powers.

Of affairs in the Transvaal, the heart and focus of South Africa, Mr. Thomson gives an admirable summary, recognising the obstinate folly of President Kruger's methods; but his suggestion that the cordial friendship of the Republics might be secured by the cancelling of the Charter will not carry conviction to anyone who has studied the value of sudden rapprochements, or who remembers that every fresh concession to the South African Republic has been ascribed by the Boers to fear and made the occasion of further annoyance. The new constitution of Southern Rhodesia should, so far as we constitution or Southern Khodesia should, so far as we can foresee, remove the grounds of many of Mr. Thomson's criticisms. Moreover, the intense disinclination of the African colonist to have his affairs summarily settled for him in Downing Street is not realised by those who wish to abolish the Company. Mr. Thomson sees that the imprisonment of Mr. Rhodes at the time of the Raid would have reunited South Africa in his favour, and a remark made or Mr. Rhodes at the time of the Raid would have reunited South Africa in his favour, and a remark made by Mr. Merriman, who said "I am a strong enough opponent of Rhodes, but if we choose to elect the devil himself, we are not going to have you" (the Home authorities) "say we shall not," ought to have shown him that the people of South Africa are not likely to valcome avecesive Imperial interference. welcome excessive Imperial interference.

With all its drawbacks, Mr. Thomson's book should be read by everyone who is interested in South Africa. He has generally a sound acquaintance with South African history, and the only errors of fact we have discovered are the incidental statements that breach of contract is never a criminal offence in India, and that the Indian Government does not allow indentured coolie emigration to any countries except British possessions.

A MILANESE PHYSICIAN.

"Jerome Cardan: a Biographical Study." By W. G. Waters. London: Lawrence and Bullen. 1898.

THE great modern physician almost necessarily is a specialist. His clinical work at a hospital, the laborious routine of his practice, and the study necessary to keep pace with even the more important of the advances in medical knowledge must absorb the better part of his energies, and form the serious achievement of his life. He may be an amateur of china or of the play, he may dabble in politics or in finance; but these are for him relaxation or distraction. It is unlikely that he should be engaged in research in the branches of science most akin to his art. The young medical student, in this country at least, has early to choose between a career in laboratories, with their exiguous reward in the way of teaching posts, tempered by the joys of scientific investigation, and the career with the commercial value of successful practice. The life of Cardan, who lived through the first three-quarters of the sixteenth century, and who was the most distinguished physician of his time, is a strange contrast to the career of a modern Harley

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Street baronet. He was born at Pavia, and studied and obtained a degree in medicine at Padua. He practised in most of the towns in Northern Italy, and in his later life he was called to Rome. At the height of his success he was held in the highest reputa-tion all over Europe, and nations outbid one another to retain his services. When he went to Scotland to meet the famous Archbishop Hamilton of St. Andrews, who then was the virtual ruler of Scotland, his progress was a triumphal procession; the learned doctors and scholars of every country gathered at the great towns on his route to do him honour and to learn from him and to wrangle with him. Although he followed the old classical methods based on the precepts of Galen, and believed in amulets and charms, and extended little but an abstract approval to the new methods based on anatomy which Vesalius was spreading, there can be no doubt that the actual basis of his treatment was a sane and keen observation of actual cases, and that his success was in reality more due to the greater intelligence and experience he brought to bear upon his patients, than to his greater knowledge of the theories of the schoolroom. He was empirical and rational in practice, although in theory utterly scholastic and transcendental. The medical work of Cardan was, however, only a small part of his activity. He was interested in the whole range of human knowledge, read, thought, and wrote on a vast number of subjects. The collected edition of his works, published at Lyons in 1663, occupied ten giant volumes, and it is improbable that this edition is nearly complete. The subjects ranged from excursions into logic and metaphysic to astrology, from algebra to natural history. He was a man of restless and versatile intellect, untiring in the accumulation of facts, and although his treatises are now long forgotten, they played a most important part in the development of human knowledge. His autobiography, "De Vita Propria," is a human document worthy to rank with the "Confessions" of Rousseau in the wonder of its abandonment and in the subtle pride of its self-exposure.

The man lived a stormy and turbulent life in stormy and turbulent times. He was born out of wedlock, and for long failed to gain admission to the medical faculty of Milan on account of this disgrace, in revenge publishing an attack on the medicine of his day. He was perpetually embroiled in lawsuits: his family misfortunes were of the severest kind, and culminated in the trial and execution of his dearly loved son for the murder of a faithless wife. He was involved in two of the most bitter literary disputes known to history with Tartaglia, the inventor of an algebraic rule which Cardan expanded in his treatise, and with Scaliger, who attacked his faith and morals. He was severely handled by the authorities of the Index, and on more than one occasion he believed his enemies to have made assaults upon his life.

There can be no question that there is material for a fascinating volume dealing with the life and writings of Cardan, and the late Professor Henry Morley, in his laborious and somewhat uninspired fashion, produced such a volume which is familiar in libraries. Mr. Waters states that this volume is now out of print, and criticises it for containing too voluminous extracts from Cardan's own writings, and too full accounts of the lives of Cardan's contemporaries. Our own criticism of Mr. Waters' volume is that it errs far on the other side. No attempt whatever is made to set this Life in an atmosphere, to sketch in a background of contemporary history, or to people it with living figures. The writer has succeeded neither in producing a literary study of a single man nor a history of a group, and we confess to have found his volume the dullest reading. Nor have we found in it any trace of unusual care or scholarship. He is content to leave on adjacent pages such diametrically opposed statements as that his father "taught him the Latin tongue," and that "his father took no trouble to teach him the Latin tongue;" and as that "he took an agnostic position with regard to the daimon of Socrates, confining his positive statement to an assertion of his own inability to realise the presence of any ghostly minister attendant on himself," and that "the one supernatural idea that deepened with old age and remained undisturbed to the end was his belief in his attendant genius."

SOME WELL-INTENTIONED VERSE.

"Sonnets and Epigrams on Sacred Subjects." By Rev.
T. E. Bridgett, of the Congregation of the Most
Holy Redeemer. London: Burns and Oates. 1898.
"Loraine, and other Verses." By George Essex Evans.
London: George Robertson. 1898.

"The Soul's Departure, and other Poems." By Edward Willmore. London: Fisher Unwin. 1898.

THESE three volumes of verse may be conveniently considered together, because they are all informed by one common quality; to wit, an excellent intention. It is, to be sure, the only good quality they share, and justice therefore demands that we should recognise at once the strenuous morality which has prompted their publication. The three writers, it is true, differ from each other in their peculiar glory. Father Bridgett, for instance, is pre-eminently unhumorous, and we cannot help speculating on the effect his verse is likely to have on "Blessed Thomas More," to whom it is "offered by a loving client." Father Bridgett is certainly modest about his attainments. Witness this preface:—

"Not perfect diamonds blazing in the light;
Not gems of sapphire or of amethyst;
But scanty tricklings from a limestone roof,
Shaping themselves to pointed stalactites,
Or humble stalagmites that upward tend,
Of curious fashion and diaphanous;
With here and there a crystal group, to eyes
That kindly look, of faint cerulean tint:
Such are the stones in this small cabinet."

We have looked with the kindliest eyes into this quaint cabinet of altipetal stalagmites, but we have discovered nothing that bears a more than superficial resemblance to poetry, cerulean or otherwise. Father Bridgett's sonnet-versions of incidents in the Life of Christ do not serve to set these in any more gracious light, and if they stand in a worthier relation to literature and religion than another and more popular elongation of the Gospel story, they do so only in virtue of their greater decency. Nor are those verses more impressive which deal with various points of faith and philosophy. The sincerity of Father Bridgett's denunciations of scientific agnosticism is unquestionable, but we do not see that Darwinism is got rid of, or literature enriched, by such an epigram as the following:—

"'Of Jesus science treats not, yea or nay:'
So writes the honoured teacher of our day.
Yet pause awhile these ancient words to scan:
'We saw his form—a worm and not a man.'
If for our God your science has no terms,
Give Him at least a place among your worms."

Sincerity and piety are excellent things, but they do not alone go far towards the making of poetry, and we fear that these scanty tricklings from Father Bridgett's limestone roof have not even a geological value.

Mr. George Essex Evans suffers chiefly from being an Australian. Poetry is a plant that thrives most vigorously in the soil of heroic traditions, and there is at present little that is heroic in Australia's past. Certainly Australian poetry has, so far, reached only the imitative stage, though it is not to be supposed that her vigorous life will not in time produce a voice and style of its own. Mr. Evans is very much in earnest, and his ideals are delightfully lofty and ingenuous. The principal poem in his book is a narrative, somewhat in the style of Scott, about a gold-digger who was betrayed by his dearest friend, and left to die in the desert. Fortunately he was discovered by a wandering tribe of blacks—for all the world as if he had been M. de Rougemont—and ultimately found his way back again to civilisation, bent on a vengeance which was frustrated by fate. The morality of the matter is excellent, and, indeed, in all his verse Mr. Evans is somewhat ostentatiously on the side of the angels. He denounces the modern thirst for gold and power; he praises contentment and the other humble virtues, and this is the burden of his song:—

"For the noblest strife in our life to-day
Is the humdrum fight in the humdrum way.
O, wealth and genius may lead the van,
But the hero is often an average man."

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Mr. Edward Willmore makes verse of a Poetic ideas are by no means infredifferent texture. quent in it, and though it is sometimes absurd, it is never commonplace. In his anxiety to free himself from the shackles of conventional rhyme and metres, Mr. Willmore occasionally throws his arms about in too frantic a fashion, and achieves only bathos. Here, for instance, are a few lines from a poem on Michael Angelo's David :-

'If from that forehead starry light should rise By some device—think you would that be Art?

I almost think so.
Thou terrible! That such a one as thou
Should tread the World's dust, let down thus to walk
Divine amongst confused and heathen men, Much signifies. (Shout, wastes!) This is God's

Mr. Willmore, however, can do much better than this, and it seems probable that his search for new attitudes towards life and a new formula of expression may in time be rewarded. The poem which gives its title to the book, for instance, is the outcome of a genuine lyric impulse. It is not conveniently quotable, but a few lines taken from its end will show the quality of the inspiration and the deftness of the execution :-

> " Heaven's house-soldiers, The guards of the high God, Were moved at the Soul's words; They dropt their shining sword-points, And the Man's Soul Gazed in at the window-pane.

There the poor Wife Martha Sat with the three Children Near a glow of ashes, And wept. And the Soul wept too,
And moaned and shook the window,
And the youngest Child said joyfully,
'It is Father come home.' But the Mother started and said 'It is the storm-gust.'"

When Mr. Willmore has learned that to avoid con ventionality is not necessarily to be original, he should do some good work.

A NOT SUPERFLUOUS LAW-BOOK.

"The Law of Principal and Surety." By S. T Rowlatt. London: Stevens and Haynes. 1899.

THE English law of guarantee is almost wholly judge-made, having been evolved from commercial usage and conceptions of equity gradually accepted by, and finally, in 1873, imposed on, the Common Law Courts. The Legislature has done little beyond bringing guarantees within the Statute of Frauds and its amend-ments, and providing in the bankruptcy laws for adjusting accounts on the insolvency of creditors and debtors and their sureties.

This state of affairs by no means lessens the task of the writers of text-books; for, instead of the mild exercise of annotating statutes, they must examine, analyse, and marshal crowds of cases of very varying value and authority, and differentiate between those which merely construe particular bargains and those which afford definite legal rules or indications of a con-

sistent development of legal principles.

This task Mr. Rowlatt has undertaken, and has managed to spare time from the Venezuela Arbitration to render a considerable service to practising lawyers by an excellent contribution to their books of reference. He has dealt with some 1,500 judicial decisions, and has succeeded in compressing their substance into a reasonable space, and at the same time in so arranging them as to present his results in a proper logical order, and with all necessary fulness of detail, without alarm-ing the empirical instincts of the English lawyer by too great a parade of abstract principles or literary style. He brings out fully in all its ramifications the nature of the law of guarantee—viz. holding the surety to his

actual bargain, and ensuring that he shall not be deprived of that recourse against the debtor and his co-sureties which is of the essence of his position as a person undertaking to answer for the debt, default, or miscarriage of another. The complexity and extent of modern commercial transactions, and the growth of the business of guaranteeing the debts or conduct of others, have tended to make the adjustment of the rights of sureties inter se, and as against the creditor or principal debtor, most complicated. It can fairly be said that the labour of working out such problems will be lightened by this book. Careful examination chapter by chapter, and almost page by page, has disclosed only one marked omission, and that more formal than substantial—viz. of the provisions of the Partnership Act of 1890, which supersede the prior law as to guarantees by

AMERICAN BUSH-FRUITS.

"Bush-Fruits." A Horticultural Monograph of Raspberries, Blackberries, Dewberries, Currants, Goose-berries, and other Shrub-like Fruits. By Professor F. W. Card. New York: The Macmillan Co.; London: Macmillan and Co. 1898.

THE interest of this book is not so much in itself as in its witness to the astonishing growth of the industry which has called for it. Here we have a volume—and a substantial volume, too, of more than 500 pages—written by a Professor of Horticulture, who has an "Experiment Station" under his charge, merely on the bush-fruits, which in England are seldom thought worth more than a few pages of an horticultural book. Moreover it is only the first of a proposed series of monographs on the various types of American fruits, which are to be edited by another Professor, Professor L. H. Bailey, of Cornell University; and the book itself, we are told, is "an extension of a thesis presented to the Cornell University for the degree of Master of Science in Agriculture." All this testifies to the rapid growth of the most recent developtestifies to the rapid growth of the most recent development of American horticulture—the culture of the smaller or bush fruits. Few people, probably, on this side of the Atlantic have any idea of the importance which this industry has already assumed, but many indications of it can be gleaned from various places in the book. Thus, for example, we read that one single county, Wayne, of the State of New York, markets about 1,000 tons of dried raspberries every year, while of huckleberries-though these latter can hardly be called cultivated, but are merely protected from poachers, like pheasants—the daily receipts in New York are said to exceed 2,000 bushels in the height of the season! For most of the bush-fruits, such as gooseberries and currants, an easy access to market is as needful as in England, for there does not seem to be any jam or tinned-fruit industry, to judge from the curious fact that jam is never even mentioned. But with raspberries the trade in the dried fruit far exceeds that in the fresh, and hence in the raspfruit far exceeds that in the fresh, and hence in the rasp-berry-growing districts, which are chiefly in the State of New York, "evaporators," or drying machinery of some kind, are necessary. Though the first evaporator was only patented in 1870, and with it, as the author proudly notes, "the introduction of the word 'evaporated,' to designate the product," the patents are now so numerous that Professor Card actually has to classify them under five heads, of which the "tower-drier" seems to be by far the most important. Sun-dried raspberries are usually about a cent per pound cheaper than evaporated usually about a cent per pound cheaper than evaporated ones, because the former are so liable to be injured by flies; but, as the Professor sadly remarks, "consumers can never be sure which they are getting." The dried can never be sure which they are getting." The dried raspberries are sent either in boxes of 50 pounds or in barrels of 125 pounds to places where fresh fruit is scarçe, especially beyond Chicago. One enterprising dealer tried the experiment of sending two or three cases only to France. "The goods are still on hand in France, with no disposition to take them at any price."

The book is carried out with a commendable thoroughness of method. After a not lengthy preliminary discussion, which, as the editor expressly points out, avoids all the historical discussion usually to be found there, three principal classes are distinguished: brambles,

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which include raspberries, blackberries, and dewberries; groselles—a rather convenient word to lump together gooseberries and currants; and miscellaneous bushfruits, of which the huckleberry is the most familiar name in the type. The cranberry is omitted altogether, it is not very clear why; and the strawberry is purposely postponed, though what future volume it can fit into is somewhat of a puzzle, and it can hardly expect one all to itself. Each of the leading classes has separate and very full and evidently careful chapters on its botany, treatment, diseases, and its specially persecuting insects.

Taken as a whole, however, the book, though decidedly interesting and very thorough, is not of any great practical value for growers on this side of the Atlantic. And the reason of this is not so much that the conditions differ so greatly as they do, wherever a fruit farm is found practicable at all in England—it has been so found, for example, at Histon, in Cambridgeshire, and Tiptree Heath, in Essex—as that, for some unknown reason, a native of one side very rarely thrives to perfection on the other. The American blackberry has often been tried in England, but, at most, with very moderate success. Of the English gooseberry Professor Card says, "like all European fruits, they have been tried again and again, yet they have only succeeded here and there, when meeting peculiarly favourable conditions. They may produce a few good berries when young, but are almost sure to fail later." It is found to be just the same with roses. No American rose has come to stay but "The Bride," and she only holds on, in spite of her delicacy, by her extreme beauty. That exquisite rose, Mrs. W. J. Grant, was bought up, stock, lock, and barrel, by the Siebrecht firm, and brought out as the "Belle Siebrecht." She became weakly at once, and was disappointing there, but since she has returned the great growers say that she has recovered her constitution, and she outshone (in her proper name) all competitors in the shows of 1898. For this reason the book, though an excellent one for a horticulturist's reference library, can never be of much use as a manual for an English grower.

The most interesting part, probably, to us will be the description of the miscellaneous sorts, and rather to the amateur who delights in the beauty or rarity of exceptional varieties than to the market-gardener who must keep sternly to what is of practical There seems no reason in the nature of things why some varieties of the black-cap and purple-cane raspberries should not take kindly to our soil and climate, and as their flavour is distinct and their productiveness, in America, greater than either the red or the white, they offer a promising field. The huckleberry is quite hopeless as yet, even in America, for cultivation, and insists on its full wild condition. But the Goumi (Eleagnus), the Juneberry (Amelanchier), for which Prof. Card foretells a rising future, and some of the Dewberries are perfectly hardy, and would seem to deserve experiments. On our barberry Prof. Card is unusually severe. He says, "We are almost led to believe that we can take anything that is edible, no matter how small, hard, sour, puckery [sic], or thorny it may be, and by careful selection and hybridising produce from it a fruit which shall delight the taste and swell the purse of coming generations. Does not the history of this fruit suggest that, after all, there may be some things which are not worth trying to improve?"
The barberry will probably never make a market fruit; but its exceptional beauty as a shrub, combined with the delicacy of flavour of its berries in a conserve, ought to

delicacy of flavour of its berries in a conserve, ought to keep for it a place of some little distinction.

The book is well printed, well illustrated, and well indexed, so that it is a good opening for the promised series. The Americanisms, such as "flavor" and "forever," must be expected, and are not very obtrusive. A few words, such as "check-rows" (planted chequer-wise) and "scarifer" (a sort of hoe), seem to need a word of explanation. The curious derivation of "gooseberry" from "kruis," the Dutch for cross, because it was ready for use "just after the Festival of the Invention of the Cross" (May 3), is obviously absurd. It is really "groser-berry," and "groser" is the same as the American "groselle," and the French "groseille."

FICTION.

"Gösta Berling's Saga." By Selma Lagerlöf.
Authorised translation by Lillie Tudeer. London:
Chapman and Hall. 1898.

MISS TUDEER has done her work as translator admirably. From the happy boldness of the word "Saga" in the title down to the last paragraph, the delightful surprise and interest of things unEnglish

never forsake the reader.

The shadows of the North hang over every page of the book, and there also fall the tender gleams of Northern light. We are much nearer nature than is common now-a-days. We see movements of the conscience that are very simple and heroic, action which is cast off in large impressive lines, passions that are primitive, coarse, tremendous; here, love is poetry; tears, despair and repentance lie near the surface, but patient expiation follows, nor has it lost the mild attendant spirit hope; here also a trifle will throw open flood-gates of disaster; there is no measure; for, after all, these Norse folk are but children with the thews and sinews of men; like children they act on impulse, like children their griefs are deep and sudden and short, like children they solve difficulties in unconsidered ways. There are three main characteristics of the society the book depicts, which are interesting as marking a striking divergence from our own. One is the close union between men and nature; the antics of the men might almost be described as symptoms of the moods of Nature, while the descripdetailed, as the doings of men. The chapters headed "The Landscape" and "Lilliecrona's Home" are beautiful examples. The second characteristic is the grip that both religious superstition and the superstigrip that both religious superstition and the supersti-tions left by Paganism, have on the people's minds. Of the first a most impressive example is the incident of the horde of wolves who hem in the guilty flight of Gösta and Anna. "Gösta drove into the yard at Berga, the wolves following them to the very steps, so that he was obliged to beat them off with the whip. 'Anna,' he said, as they reached the door, 'it is not God's will. Keep a good countenance now, if you are the woman I think you.' The sleigh bells had been heard indoors, and all the household came to meet them." Of the second, the weird incident of the Witch of Dovres and the magpies is the most striking. The third characteristic is the reliance of the men upon the rule of women for their safety. When the Saga opens, the "Lady of Ekeby" is the vigorous ruler of the district; she has a passionate love for her "people," and in her lavish benevolence keeps twelve ne'er-do-weels as her pensioners. She is driven forth from her position by her husband and by the twelve pensioners, who are named the "Cavaliers." The book is merely the tale of the year of ruin that follows. Gösta Berling, the disgraced priest and the youngest of the Cavaliers, is the wild though beautiful soul of the disaster; and throughout the year the great-hearted "Lady of Ekeby," the richest and most powerful person in Värmland, wanders richest and most powerful person in Värmland, wanders as a beggar, filled with the bitterest grief at the evil brought on the people, rather than with revenge at her own wrongs. She has left behind her at Ekeby, however, a trusted serving-maid, and while the men are engaged in scattering and destroying, the girl manages unaided to keep the Ekeby household together, and to prevent complete wreckage of the district. Towards the end of the year, when the repentant Cavaliers are wearying of their prolonged carousal, the young Countess Elizabeth their prolonged carousal, the young Countess Elizabeth -a lovely soul doing penance for a fancied sin-is rescued by them, and established at Ekeby as ruler in the place of the former mistress; and once more things are righted, and Ekeby and the cavaliers brought back to their good sense. The men, strong and wild as to their good sense. The men, strong and wild as Vikings, do not apparently feel safe unless they have placed their rugged natures and impulsive passions under some orderly mother-guidance. Here we seem to return to very primitive instincts; indeed, the original difference between the sexes shines out in this book in a manner very striking to modern eyes. Another very impressive characteristic is the submission of the whole being to the idea of expirition or again. of the whole being to the idea of expiation, or, again,

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a childlike and conscious submission to the guidance of a wisdom unhesitatingly recognised as higher than their own. From a book in which every chapter is full of beauties, full of strange flashes of truth and of smartbeauties, full of strange flashes of truth and of smarting pathos, we gather one instance of this power of acquiescence. It is from the chapter called "God's Pilgrim." Captain Lennart has suffered five years' wrongful imprisonment, and is returning home unspoiled and full of simple joy to a wife who has proudly refused to believe him guilty, but who is very stern at any recognisable wrongdoing. On his way he falls into the hands of the Cavaliers, and they, instigated by Sintram, the human-demon of the book, play on him a sorry trick, and convey him, as an apparently drunken wreck, to his home. His wife, mistaking his condition, drives him away—seemingly in Värmland the woman would have the right to do this. "He tried to follow her. She gave him a backward thrust on the breast. would have the right to do this. "He tried to follow her. She gave him a backward thrust on the breast. "Do you think I will take a man like you to be master over my house and my children?" The door slammed, and the bar fell into its place. . . The Cavaliers could not restrain their mirth. . . . When Captain Lennart heard them laugh, he turned and wanted to fight them. They sprang aside and climbed into their cart. He rushed after them, but stumbled over a stone and fell headlong and though he get up he did not cart. He rushed after them, but stumbled over a stone and fell headlong, and though he got up he did not follow them any further. A thought struck his confused mind. Nothing happened in the world without it being the will of God. 'Whither wilt Thou lead me?' he said. 'I am a feather, driven by the breath of Thy spirit. I am a ball in Thy hands. Whither wilt Thou lead me? Why dost Thou close the doors of my home against me?' And he went away from his home, thinking it was God's will he should do so."

of my home against me? And he went away from his home, thinking it was God's will he should do so."

There is a kind of sublime simplicity in this; and such touches meet the reader again and again. No true lover of human nature can fail to be moved by

this book.

"The Two Standards." By William Barry. London: Unwin. 1899.

This is a very long novel, written by a very able and learned priest, whose first book, "The New Antigone," has not been forgotten. We should describe it as something between one of Mrs. Humphry Ward's novels and one of Ouida's. Dr. Barry has done his best to seize upon topics of contemporary interest. His story binges on the fortunes of agrees to the fortunes of the fortun hinges on the fortunes of a great company promoter; his hero is a German musician and poet, obviously suggested by Wagner; there is a lady who is clair-voyante; there is a decadent gentleman who presides over social functions; and there is Exeter Hall. And Dr. Barry knows what he writes about; he has got the jargon of the society which is rich and affects to be artistic; his financier, the cultured millionaire, is a wellchosen type; his heroine, the young lady with beauty and talent who gets bored in a country vicarage, and strikes out for herself in London, is quite conceivable; in short, he knows his world. His people talk as people do talk nowadays; they do the right things, or do no wrong things; one cannot put a finger on any of their phrases and say, This is absurd. But the sad thing is that not one of them is alive. That is why Dr. Barry is like Mrs. Humphry Ward. He is like Ouida because of a certain tendency to rhetoric, which is present in all his satire; but he has not the fire which makes up for many of that lady's extravagances. Moreover, with all his effort to be up to date, the work is old-fashioned. The style is old-fashioned; the form is old-fashioned with its digressions and introduction of episodes which do not help on the story; and the point of view is almost early Victorian. Dr. Barry does not seem to realise that Evangelicalism is out of fashion. Mr. Jabez Balfour, whom he has in mind, could never have organised nowadays a great missionary syndicate. Gordon College is to be a things; one cannot put a finger on any of their phrases missionary syndicate. Gordon College is to be a Mohammedan University. The one thing in the book which carries conviction (except the description of the heroine's first appearance on a stage) is the account of the hero's temporary retreat to a Jesuit monastery. It is, on the whole, a very interesting book—interesting by its faults as well as its merits—but it proves that not even ability, culture, and style, added to experience gained in the confessional, will enable a man to write

a good novel. But long labour and much thought have evidently been put into this book by an able man, and it is well worth reading.

"Manders." By Elwyn Barron. London: John Macqueen. 1898.

"Manders" is the piteous story of an unchildlike little child who pondered many things. The passages relative to America, and the love episodes of Miss Storey and Mr. Medenhall, we dismiss at once, not because they are badly done, but because they have been better done often enough before. Manders and because they are badly done, but because they have been better done often enough before. Manders and Manders "maman," however, are vivid and delicate creations, with an individuality of their own. Manders maman was petite and mignonne and dimpled. She was good from instinct, but she was also a model for "the altogether," until Manders' baby wrath and pity with a select that the care of the latest that the street of the selection of the selectio put an end to that career. Unhappily for Manders and herself, she came under the sway of an American artist, who, for all his limited admiration for Joseph, yet knew a good woman when he saw one. More unhappily still, Manders' warning "Maman!" could only come after the apple was plucked. And when the little maman was dead, Manders' dignified and pathetic treatment of the situation was her betrayer's worst punishment.

"Hope the Hermit." By Edna Lyall. Longmans. 1898.

To have written a novel whose sheer dulness must cloud the beauty of the Vale of Keswick, and fill it for the travelled reader with spectral bores, is a feat from which Miss Edna Lyall is perhaps able to derive more pleasure than those who are called on to contemplate her achievement. This dreary tale should have been told of any other district of England than that which is consecrated by so many splendid memories, and Canon Rawnsley, to whom the book is heartlessly dedicated, may very well tremble as he walks through his parish may very well tremble as he walks through his parish lest he should encounter the ghosts of Michael Derwent or Audrey Radcliffe. Miss Lyall's narrative treats of the struggles between Protestantism and Roman Catholicism in the last quarter of the seventeenth century, but it fails to create any sense of historic illusion, and her characters deal only in more or less strenuous platitudes. In her anxiety to avoid all appearance of reproducing the literary methods of the time, Miss Lyall goes so far as to suggest that, about 1680, it was customary to finish a letter with the phrase, "I remain, Yours faithfully." It is only necessary to add that Miss Lyall's own style is as viscous and unimaginative as ever.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"Les Chroniqueurs de l'Histoire de France." Charles VII et Louis XI. D'après les Chroniqueurs de Monstrelet à Commines. Texte abrégé, coordonné et traduit par Mme de Witt, née Guizot. Paris: Libraitie Hachette et Cie.

"L'Alsace, Le Pays et ses Habitants." Par Charles Grad. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie.

"Le Tour du Monde." Journal des Voyages et des Voyageurs. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie.

"Le Démon des Sables." Par Gustave Toudouze. Gravures dessinées par A. Paris. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie.

M. M. D. E. WITT. in her Chronicles of Charles VII. and

ME. DE WITT, in her Chronicles of Charles VII. and Louis XI., has, as is indeed invariable with her, accomplished her task of selection, amalgamation, compression, and rendering intomodern French—a composite, and by no means too easy, task—with remarkable judgment and success. Mme. de Witt knows exactly how to pick out the important points of a period and join them together so as to make a homogeneous narrative in which them together so as to make a homogeneous narrative in which there is no tediousness, and yet no neglect of any detail which is necessary to obtain a proper impression of the periods treated. But, indeed, Mme. de Witt's skill in this regard is so well known that it is almost needless to dwell upon it. The illustrations, of which there are very many, are throughout of singular merit, and the reproductions of paintings on MSS., &c.. are veritable triumphs, and show to what thoroughly artistic purpose chromo-lithography can be turned. As an instance we may point to "Un Bal au Quinzième Siècle" (p. 200), reproduced from an original in the Library of the Arsenal, which is really beautiful. Of the "planches tirées en noir" the portrait of Jean d'Orléans, Comte de Dunois et de Longueville (p. 63), is a very good example, and the small engravings are of uniform excellence.

M. Grad's "L'Alsace" is a capital book of picturesque travel, in which, moreover, there is a great deal of interesting information conveyed in a most agreeable manner without a touch of pedantry or—for which let us be devoutly thankful—of the New

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Humour, a product, indeed, which the Great French Nation has not assimilated and, to its credit, is not likely ever to assimilate. But then the French have native humour enough without forcing not assimilated and, to its credit, is not likely ever to assimilate. But then the French have native humour enough without forcing it. Most Englishmen know Alsace chiefly from the stories of Erckmann-Chatrian, and perhaps from "L'Ami Fritz." There is a great deal more about it to be learnt, and pleasantly learnt, from M. Grad's volume, which is adorned by excellent illustrations. The chapters on Wildenstein, with especial reference to pisciculture, and on Strasburg, probably the place in Alsace most familiar to English travellers, will be found particularly interesting to the general reader, while he who has an artistic turn will be captivated by what is told of the "peintre Sundgauvien" M. Jean-Jacques Henner and by the reproductions from his work. Altogether the book is to be highly commended both for the letterpress and for the accompanying illustrations.

One always welcomes the annual bound-up volume of "Le Tour du Monde," with its great variety of subject and illustrations, and one always finds it a capital volume to dip into. The only conceivable objection to it is its unwieldiness, but that is unluckily not to be avoided except by changing the "format" of the whole thing, and, after all, the proverb about a gift-horse may well be applied to a gift-book.

"Le Démon des Sables" is a rattling story of Bonaparte's Egyptian campaign, with plenty of stirring adventure in it apart from the central interest. This concerns the secret attaching to the mysterious death or disappearance of a distinguished Frenchman, the son of whose dearest friend joins the campaign in order to fathom if may be the mystery. The secret

tinguished Frenchman, the son of whose dearest friend joins the campaign in order to fathom if may be the mystery. The secret is very well kept up to the proper moment, and the scenes of campaigning and other adventure are both interesting and lively, while the "comic relief" is furnished by an Alsatian celdier, who hamiltoned to redee the complex of the complex o soldier, who happily is not overdone.

"From Euston to Klondike." By Julius M. Price. London: Sampson Low and Co. 1898.

Mr. Julius M. Price went out to Klondike as a "special" in the service of an illustrated weekly newspaper, and his contri-butions form the basis of the present volume. As he reached Dawson City last June his opinions are among the latest and most authentic regarding the Arctic goldfields of the far Northmost authentic regarding the Arctic goldheids of the far Northwest. He refrains from giving any verdict as to the extent of the gold-bearing area of the Yukon district. Certainly much gold has been found there, but the rest is—silence. Mr. Price's narrative is, as might be expected from a traveller of his experience, brightly written and natural in the sense that in nature nothing is isolated. He does not waste time on preliminaries, and from the moment of his departure to that of his return, he enables up to see with his guess and to have as it were with his and from the moment of his departure to that of his return, he enables us to see with his eyes and to hear as it were with his ears all that is worth notice on the journey, and that all is seen and heard in its proper place. If we are to extract any moral from Mr. Price's story it is this:—If a man is prepared to go through the hardships entailed by mining on the Yukon, he is likely to make a greater profit by going through their equivalent at home. The numerous sketches add to the value of the text, and there is a useful map.

"A Digest of the Death Duties." By A. W. Norman, B.A., B.Sc. (Lond.), of the Legacy and Succession Duty Office. 2nd edition. London: William Clowes and Sons, Limited.

Mr. Norman has completely transformed the appearance of his admirable and exhaustive treatise on the Death Duties. The first edition of 1892 treated the subject in two parts, of which the first edition of 1892 treated the subject in two parts, of which the second consisted of a Digest Index larger than the body of the book itself. This was felt to be a good idea, but it left something to be desired in point of convenience. What was required was that the whole subject should be treated in the form of an alphabetical digest on the plan of the Index, and this has accordingly now been done. Its special virtue is its practical treatment of an appallingly intricate subject by an expert official in the office which collects all these wonderful Death Duties; and those who wish to study the Finance Acts of 1894, 1896, and 1898, in particular, cannot have a better guide than this book.

"The Annual Statutes, 1898." By J. M. Lely, Barrister-at-Law. London: Sweet and Maxwell; Stevens and Sons.

Law. London: Sweet and Maxwell; Stevens and Sons. All the well-known features of this annual publication are reproduced in the present issue. We see no reason, however, for reprinting the Land Registration Rules, unless it were to make a rather small book somewhat larger, especially as the Act itself does not come into the volume; and the rules of several other statutes, as the Benefices Act, the Vaccination Act, the Inebriates Act, the Prison Act, which are in the volume, are omitted. That need not be regretted; nor should we have felt the loss of some of the notes and extracts from the Vaccination Commission Report in the annotation of the Vaccination Act.

"The 'House' on Sport," by Members of the Stock Exchange, edited by W. A. Morgan (London: Gale and Polden, Limited), has been got together in furtherance of a children's dinner fund, and will no doubt command a considerable measure of support, wholly apart from any intrinsic merits. The volume is admir-

ably "got up," especially in view of the short time at the disposal of the editor and contributors. Some of the members show themselves possessed of a quite respectable literary style in dealing with the particular kind of sport which interests them. Lord Alwyne Compton's contribution on Hunting is especially noteworthy. We do not like to suggest plagiarism, but it reads like a reproduction from Whyte-Melville.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEWS.

In the hurry and rush of the hour, it has become the custom regard the stately quarterlies as anachronisms. Such a view In the hurry and rush of the hour, it has become the custom to regard the stately quarterlies as anachronisms. Such a view is warranted only on the assumption that the last word has been said by the journalist who delivers his verdict on events almost before they happen. The truth is, the quarterlies to-day stand in the midway between journalism and history; their judgments are neither ephemeral nor final. Subsequent light thrown on the subjects dealt with may render a revised verdict essential, but the conditions of publication at least enable the reviewer to eith his facts and weigh his words. But this does not roth them but the conditions of publication at least enable the reviewer to sift his facts and weigh his words. But this does not rob them of topical interest. Thus the "Edinburgh," the "Quarterly," and the "Church Quarterly "all contain articles on the present Church Controversy which merit careful perusal. The "English Historical Review" only reflects on it incidentally in a lengthy paper on "Methods of Early Church History"—methods too often animated by the spirit which has marked the recent controversy. That the Church is in danger none but her enemies would for a second contend. If there is the smallest ground for anxiety, there is also much for hope. This is made abundantly clear by the "Church Quarterly" in a critical review of the Archbishop of Canterbury's Charge and of the Archbishop of York's Pastoral Letter. There is unrest, as the "Edinburgh" says, but there is no need and no wish to plunge everything into the crucible. A larger percentage of extreme Ritualism than was generally realised has been shown to exist, but that is not inconsistent with the "Quarterly's" view, stated in a masterly article on "The Ethics of Religious Conformity," that a real revival of faith is taking place. It is, moreover, recognised article on "The Ethics of Religious Conformity," that a real revival of faith is taking place. It is, moreover, recognised that "to discard dogma in the interests of religion would be like discarding language in the interests of thought." The "Quarterly" regards the present manifestation of unrest as evidence of reaction, and as promise that "the light of Christianity may once again recover the lustre which has seemed in the past one hundred and fifty years to have grown

For the British race no question at the end of the nineteenth century is more pressing than that propounded a year and a half ago by the Duke of Devonshire—Are Democracy and Empire permanently compatible? The "Quarterly" has little doubt that the people will prove themselves equal to the occasion. Democracy is eminently teachable, and has shown itself as Imperial as the veriest autocrat. In Great Britain it has been the main instrument in defeating the machinations or the indifference of the Manchester School. "It is quite credibly reported," says the "Quarterly," "that in the mid-century there existed in the Colonial Office the draft of a Bill for facilitating the pacific detachment of the Colonies from their connexion with the Mother-country." Democracy defeated that little scheme. The Empire has grown as the electorate has been widened, and Imperialism has undone the Radical party. In France Republican institutions have proved no bar to the creation of an over-the-sea Empire, though the accomplishments of France in this direction hardly merit the high eulogy passed on them For the British race no question at the end of the nineteenth in this direction hardly merit the high eulogy passed on them by the "Quarterly." In America, Monroeism seems to have gone the way of Manchesterism in England. Imperialism may impart to the administrative machine on the other side of the Atlantic a stability which it at present lacks. An Empire cannot be "bossed" as local administration can. Sir Henry Maine not be "bossed" as local administration can. Sir Henry Maine argued against Democracy on the ground that it tended to become the sum of the weaknesses of individuals. That the failings of a popular régime are not one whit greater than those of the Monarchical State we are reminded in another important article in the "Quarterly," on Austria. Directly an Austrian Minister has shown a mastery of the position politically, his fall has resulted from the madequate support given him by his Sovereign. Or we may turn to a paper in the "Edinburgh" on Sir George Trevelyan's "American Revolution." Here we find similar evidence that popular Government has no monopoly of unwisdom. It is, we agree, going too far to suggest that New England, with its aspirations after freedom and self-government, represented the Good and after freedom and self-government, represented the Good and Old England the Wicked. But a little common sense and Old England the Wicked. But a little common sense and tolerance might have averted the crisis. As Mr. Lecky has shown, there was no enthusiasm for Independence. On the other hand, the devotion of the Empire Loyalists, who faced the wilderness and ruin rather than renounce their allegiance, was one of the noblest and most thrilling episodes in all history. Even in Connecticut, where, as Mr. George A. Gilbert tells us, in the January number of the "American Historical Review," the exponent of anti-republican principles was accounted little less than a political monstrosity, there was a respectable Loyalist minority. Whilst Mr. Gilbert affords an intimate insight into the

(Concluded on page 124.)

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condition of things which prevailed in one of the Colonies at the time of the Revolution, an article in the "Quarterly" on the Duke of Grafton's autobiography impresses us with the chaos of parties in England. The Duke of Grafton, whose action has been so long misunderstood, was among the few who would have given way on the Tea-duties. Had Chatham's health permitted him to remain at the head of the Government, Grafton believed that the American Revolution might have been avoided. England, mo doubt, could have crushed the Colonies had she chosen, but she would have done so only to be called on to face an even worse crisis later. In an article on "Spaniards and Moors," which a little judicious editing would have made almost perfect of its kind, the "Quarterly" traces the decay of Spain to her ruthless brutality in her dealings with the Moors. The cases of England and Spain, in any case, could not be regarded as on all fours, but the moral conveyed by a study of the causes of Spanish decline is fairly clear.

Of other important articles in the quarterlies, it is impossible to do more than make the briefest note. Secondary education is the theme of two articles, one in the "Church Quarterly" intended to show what is proposed in the way of legislation, whilst the other, in the "Edinburgh," is a vi gorous plea for immediate legislation. "If another Session ends without a reasonably complete measure on Secondary Education being passed into law England will." the "Edinburgh," thinked the proposed in the way of the proposed in the way of the proposed in the way of legislation, whilst the other, in the "Edinburgh," is a vi gorous plea for immediate legislation. "If another Session ends without a reasonably complete measure on Secondary Education being passed into law England will." The "Edinburgh," thinked the proposed in the way of the case of Secondary Education of the case of Seco condition of things which prevailed in one of the Colonies at the

plea for immediate legislation. "If another Session ends without a reasonably complete measure on Secondary Education being passed into law, England will," the "Edinburgh" thinks, "have a right to complain." For the discussion of legal questions we naturally turn to the "Law Quarterly," but articles on "The Reform of the Law of Evidence" in the "Edinburgh" and "The Improvement of the Statute Law" in the "Quarterly" should be read. In the "Law Quarterly" the status and the revision powers of the Court of Cassation are lucidly defined by Mr. Thomas Barclay. The question of the working of Land Transfer Registries is discussed by Mr. W. Strachan, whilst Mr. H. B. Simpson urges some considerations with regard to penal servitude which should appeal to both lawyers and the general public.

For This Week's Books see page 126.

NOTICE.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return, or to enter into correspondence as to, rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

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CHLORODYNE is admitted by the profession to be the most wonderful and valuable remedy ever discovered.

CHLORODYNE is the best remedy known for Coughs, Consumption, Bronchitis, Asthma.

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"Earl Russell communicated to the College of Physicians that he received a espatch from Her Majesty's Consul at Manilla to the effect that cholera has been ging fearfully, and that the only remedy of any service was CHLORODYNE."—See ancet, 1 December, 1864.

Lancet, 1 December, 1854.

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BROWNE was undoubtedly the inventor of CHLORODYNE, that the story of the

defendant Freeman was deliberately untrue; which, he regretted to say, had been

sworn to."—See Times, 13 July, 1864.

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This Bank grants drafts on, and transacts every description of banking business with, the principal towns in Cape Colony, Natal, South African Republic, Orange Free State, Rhodesia, and East Africa. Telegraphic remittances made. Deposits received for fixed periods. Terms on application.

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ROYAL SOCIETY for the PREVENTION of CRUELTY to ANIMALS.

Owing to the Society's operations the statutes made for the protection of animals have been enacted and enforced. It is an educational and punitive agency. It disseminates in schools, and among persons having the care of dumb animals, upwards of one hundred different kinds of journals, leaflets, pamphlets, and small books, all of which are designed to teach the proper treatment of domestic animals, and the duty and profitableness of kindness to them. By its officers, who are engaged in all parts of England, it cautions or punishes persons guilty of offences. Thus, while its primary object is the protection of creatures which minister to man's wants, it is obvious that in no small degree it seeks to elevate human nature.

Persons who desire to be made acquainted with further particulars, showing the persuasive and educational measures or punitive proceedings taken by the Society to prevent cruelty to animals, should apply to the Secretary or to all booksellers for its monthly illustrated journals, "The Animal World," price 2d., and "The Band of Mercy," price 3d.; also to the Secretary for its annual report, price 1s. to non-members; also for books, pamphlets, leaflets, and other literature published by the Society a catalogue of which may be had gratis; also for copies of its monthly return of convictions, or also its cautionary placards, which will be sent gratis to applicants who offer to distribute them usefully. Address, to, Jermyn Street.

MONTHLY RETURN OF CONVICTIONS (not including those obtained by the police or by kindred societies) obtained during the month ending January 15, 1899, as follows:

MONTHLY RETURN of the police or by kindred societies) obtained during the month ending J 1899, as follows:

Working horses and donkeys in an unfit state
Beating, &c. horses, dogs, cattle, cats, and ducks
Overloading and overdriving horses.
Starving horses, cattle, pigs, and dogs by withholding food
Abandoning horses when injured
Travelling horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs when lame
Wounding horse by inserting stick into body
Wounding donkeys and cattle by dragging on ground and hoppling
improperly Wounding donkeys and cattle by dragging on ground and hopp improperly.

Conveying cattle, sheep, and pigs improperly.

Shooting dogs and cats improperly, with consequent suffering Overcrowding fowls in crates and tying legs too tightly.

Shooting, taking, &c., wild birds during close season.

Causing in above (owners)

Assaulting officers

Infringing Knackers' sections of the Act

Infringing Knackers' sections of the Act.

Total from 15 Dec., 1898, to 15 Jan., 1899 9563

Twenty-four offenders were committed to prison (full costs paid by the Society), 539 offenders paid pecuniary penalties (penalties are not received by the Society). The above return is irrespective of the assistance rendered to the police in cases not requiring the personal attendance of our officers.

The Committee invite the co-operation and support of the public. Printed suggestions may be had on application to the undersigned.

ANONYMOUS COMPLAINTS OF CRUELTY ARE NOT ACTED ON. The names of correspondents are not given up when letters are marked "Private." Cheques and Post Orders should be made payable to the Secretary, to whom all letters should be addressed. The Society is GKEATLY in NEED of FUNDS.

JOHN COLAM, Secretary.

125 Jermyn Street, London.

JOHN COLAM, Secretary.

The above return is published (1) to inform the public of the nature and extent of acts of cruelty to animals discovered by the Society in England and Wales; (2) to show the Society's efforts to suppress that cruelty by statutory law; (3) to prompt the police and constabulary to apply the Statutes in similar offences; and (4) to make the law known and respected, and to warn cruelly disposed persons against breaking it. Officers are not permitted to lay information, except as directed by the Secretary on written evidence.

AUSTRALIAN COVERNMENT SOUTH

3 PER CENT. CONSOLIDATED INSCRIBED STOCK.

PRINCIPAL AND INTEREST PAYABLE IN LONDON.

(Six months' Interest payable on 1st July next.)

ISSUE OF £1,500,000.

To redeem f,1,080,000 South Australian Government 4 per Cent. Debentures maturing 1st July, 1899, and for other purposes.

MINIMUM PRICE OF ISSUE £943 PER CENT.

This Loan is issued partly under Act No. 648 of 1896 of the South Australian Parliament, initiated the "Consolidated Stock and Sinking Fund Act, 1896," to redeem \$\frac{1}{2}\cdot, 1896, or Debentures falling due July 1 next, thus effecting a saving to the Government in the annual charge of Interest, and partly under Public Purposes Loan Act No. 700 of 1898 of the South Australian Parliament.

ABRIDGED PROSPECTUS.

ABRIDGED PROSPECTUS.

THE BANK OF ADELAIDE, 11 LEADENHALL STREET, E.C., is authorised by the undersigned to receive Tenders for the South Australian Government Three per Cent. Consolidated Inscribed Stock, amounting to £1,500,000, authorised by the Acts of the South Australian Parliament as above stated.

Principal and Interest are payable in London; the Interest on the 1st January and 1st July of each year, a balf-year's interest being payable 1st July next, and the South Australian Government have the option of redeeming the principal at par on the 1st July, 2916, or at any time thereafter by giving due notice by advertisement in the London Gazette and in the 1 inter newspaper. The Acts provide for a Sinking Fund of ½ per cent. per annum.

The Revenues of the Colony of South Australia alone are liable in respect of this Stock and the Dividends thereon, and the Consolidated Fund of the United Kingdom and the Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury are not directly or indirectly liable or responsible for the payment of the Stock or of the Dividends thereon, or for any matter relating thereto—40 and 41 Vic., cap. 59, sec. 10.

Tenders will be received by the Bank of Adelaide until 2 0'clock on Tuesday, the 31st January, when they will be opened in the presence of such of the applicants as may then be in attendance.

No Tender for less than £100, or for a fractional portion of £100, of Stock will be entertained.

Payment must be made as follows, viz.—

£5 per cent. to be paid as under.

£30 per cent. on the 23rd of March.

£40 per cent. on the 23rd of March.

£40 per cent. on the 23rd of July next will be received in lieu of cash in payment of the application-money and instalments as they become due, and also for payment in full at any time, but no discount will be allowed on such payments made in advance. Any cash b-lance due in respect of Debentures lodged will be paid by cheque on 1st July. The Debenture holders will retain the Coupon due 1st July next.

Forms of Tender may be obtained at the Office of the Ban

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ST. PAUL'S PREPARATORY SCHOOL, COLET COURT, LONDON, W., OPENED for LENT TERM, 1899, on TUESDAY, 17 January.—Applications for admission to be made to the Head Master, Mr. J. Bewsher, M.A., late Scholar of Balliol College, Oxford. During the last School Year 21 Paulines gained Scholarships or Exhibitions at Oxford and Cambridge, and 19 gained admission into Woolwich and Sandhurst. (During the last thirteen years 250 Open Scholarships have been taken by Paulines at Oxford and Cambridge.) At the Apposition, 1898, there were 88 Boys in St. Paul's who had gained Oxford and Cambridge Higher Certificates, 20 who had Marticulated at London University, and 79 who had qualified for Medical Registration. About 70 per cent. of the Boys who gained these successes had received their early education at Colet Court.

ROSSALL SCHOOL.

FOURTEEN ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS, value from 60 guineas downwards, will be Awarded by Examination, beginning 21 March, 1890, Boys examined at Oxford and Rossall.—Apply, Bursar, Rossall School, Fleetwood.

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A PPLICATIONS are invited for the above position from A LILEATIONS are invited for the above position from University Graduates under 35 years of age. Salary £900 per annum. Pension £400 per annum, on retirement, under certain conditions, after 20 years service. Duties to commence on 1 June, 1899. £100 allowed for passage expense to Sydney. Particulars of conditions of appointment, duties, &c., can be obtained from Sir Daniel Cooper, Bart., G.C.M.G., Acting Agent-General for New South Wales, 9 Victoria Street, Westminster, London, S.W., to whom applications, stating age, and accompanied by eight copies of each testimonial submitted, must be sent not later than 18 February, 1899.

Block "B" Langlaagte Estate Gold Mining Company, Limited.

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN that the Transfer
Register of the Preference Shares of the above-named Company will be
closed from 1 February to 7 February next, inclusive, for the purpose of preparing a
list of Shareholders entitled to receive the 8 per cent. dividend due to the Shareholders registered on 31 January, 1899.
The Dividend Warrants will be issued by the Head Office (Johannesburg) or
receipt of the List of Shareholders on the London Register, and will be posted from
the London Office to those Shareholders as soon as received from Johannesburg.

By Order,
J. ROBERTSON, London Transfer Secretary.

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GRATEFUL. COMFORTING. 126

THIS WEEK'S BOOKS.

The Master E. S. and the "Ars Morien li" (Lionel Cust). Oxford Clarendon Press. 17s. 6d. net.

BIOGRAPHY.

The Life of Captain Sir Richard F. Burton, K.C.M.G., F.R.G.S. (Isabel Burton). Edited by W. H. Wilkins. Duckworth. 10s. 6d. Letters of Walter Savage Landor (Public and Private). Edited by Stephen Wheeler. Duckworth. 10s. 6d. Sir George Pomeroy-Colley (1835–1881. Lieutenant-General Sir William F. Butler). Murray. 21s.

CLASSICS.

Euripides and the Attic Orators (D. Thomson). Macmillan. 6s.

FICTION.

FICTION.

Selah Harrison (S. Macnaughton). Macmillan. 8s. 6d. net.
Things that have Happened (Dorothea Gerard). Methuen. 6s.
Manders (Elwyn Barron). Macqueen.
In the Name of Liberty (Florence Marryat). Digby, Long. 2s.
A Brace of Yarns (W. Braunston Jones). Digby, Long. 6s.
Some Fantasics of Fate (M. W. Welbore). Digby, Long. 6s.
The Paths of the Prudent (J. S. Fletcher). Digby, Long. 6s.
The Pride of Life (Sir William Magnay). Smith, Elder. 6s.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Wonders of the Bird World (R. Bowdler Sharpe). Gardner, Darton. 6s.

SCIENCE AND PHILOSOPHY.

Outlines of Industrial Chemistry (Frank Hall Thorpe). Macmillan. 15s. net.

Dictionary of Medical Terms (English-French) (H. de Mérie). Bailliere Tindall, and Cox. 5s.

The Works of George Berkeley (Vol. III.). Bell and Son.

Economics (Devine). Macmillan. 4s. 6d.

An Introduction to the Creeds (A. E. Burn). Methuen. 10s. 6d.

In the Australian Bush (Semon). Macmillan. 21s.
In the Niger Country (Harold Bindloss). Blackwood. 12s. 6d.
With a Palette in Eastern Palaces (E. M. Merrick). Sampson Low.
The Valley of Light (W. Basil Worsfold). Macmillan. 10s.
West African Studies (Miss M. H. Kingsley). Macmillan.

Dialoghi d'Esteta (Romolo Quaglino). Tipografia Fratelli, Treves. A Drama of Two Lives, and other Poems (E. J. Chapman). Kegan 2s. 6d.

Paul. 2s. 6d.
Umbra Cœli (Compton Reade). New Century Press, Ld. 3s. 6d.
Indian Epigrams (More). Harpers. 5s.
In Glasgow Streets, and other Poems (Robert Bain). H. Nicol.
December Musings and Other Poems (Charles Sanford Olmsted).
Geo. W. Jacobs.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Home Life in Colonial Days (Alice M. Earle). Macmillan. 8s. 6d.

Home Life in Colonial Days (Alice M. Earle). Macmillan. 8s. 6d. net.

The Public Schools Year Book, 1899. Sonnenschein. 2s. 6d.
Trelawney of the "Wells" (Arthur W. Pinero). Heinemann. 1s. 6d.
Guide to Dancing (Edward Lawson). Routledge and Sons.
The Constitutional Year Book, 1899. 1s.
The Workers (Wyckoff). Heinemann. 3s.
The Secret of Good Health and Long Life (Haydn Brown). Bowden.
Words for the Wind (W. Phelps). George Allen. 2s. net.
Sanatoria for Consumptives (F. R. Walters). Sonnenschein.
Money, Weights, and Measures of all Nations (W. A. Browne)
(English Edition). Stanford. 2s. 6d.
The Heather Field and Meave (Edward Martyn). Duckworth. 5s.
Richard Wagner's Prose Works (W. Ashton Ellis) (Vol. VII.). Kegan
Paul. 12s. 6d.
The Works of William Shakespeare (Vol. I. Love's Labour's Lost,
Comedy of Errors, Two Gentlemen of Verona, and A Midsummer
Night's Dream) (The Eversley Edition). Macmillan. 5s.
Musketry Instruction in India (Annual Report).
A Shuttle of an Empire's Loom (H. Vandervell). Blackwood. 6s.
Sketches by Box (Charles Dickens. Vols. I. and II.). Dent. 3s.
The New Zealand Official Year Book. 1898.
Creation Myths of Primitive America (Jeremiah Curtin). Williams
and Norgate. 10s. 6d.

and Norgate. 10s. 6d.
Women Workers (Official Report, 1898. N. U. T.) Jarrold. 2s. 6d.

MAGAZINES AND REVIEWS.

MAGAZINES AND REVIEWS.

Harper's Monthly Magazine (February). 1s.
Journal of the Royal United Service Institution (January). 2s.
Longman's Magazine (February). 6d.
The Cornhill Magazine (February). 1s.
Harper's Magazine (February). 1s.
The Life Boat (February). 3d.
Jewish Quarterly Review (January). 3s. 6d.
The Puritan (No. 1. Vol. I., February). 6d.
Fair Game (February). 6d.
Naval and Military Magazine (February). 6d.
United Service Magazine (February). 2s.
Fortnightly Review (February). 2s. 6d.
St. Peter's (February). 6d.
Work (Vol. XV., January 15th–July 9th, 1898). Cassell. 41.

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VAN RYN GOLD MINES ESTATE

(LIMITED).

CIRCULAR TO SHAREHOLDERS.

18 St. Swithin's Lane, London, E.C. January 24, 1800

DEAR SIR (or MADAM),-I am instructed by my Board to inform you that the options existing over your Company's reserve shares have now been exercised, and out of the proceeds the Debenture debt of £80,000 has been paid off.

Since the date of the Annual Meeting, much further information has come to hand regarding the development of the Mine. This information is so important, showing, as Mr. Denny says, "that the Mine is opening up beyond our expectations," that the Board consider the shareholders should be placed in possession of the facts as reported to them.

Appended herewith, therefore, are extracts from Mr. Denny's most recent reports. The main points in them to which the Directors wish

1. That in the lower levels of the main reef the tendency is to find a thicker body of ore, thus materially increasing the payable tonnage of this reef.

- 2. The continued richness of the leaders, especially in the Eastern Section: and
- 3. The general increase in the estimated value of the ore per ton from both the Central and Eastern Sections of the Mine.

SLIMES PLANT.—As the result of the increase in the yield per ton at the Mine, the Directors are considering the advisability of erecting a plant for the treatment of slimes; and plans and specifications are now in course of preparation. As soon as this plant is in working order, a saving will be effected of £200 per month, by doing away with the necessity of constructing pits for the reception of the slimes; and, further, it is estimated that an increase of about £1,700 will be made to the monthly profits of the Company by the addition of this treatment. A considerable saving in the quantity of water used in the Company's operations will also be possible thereby.

GENERAL. - General progress at the Mine, as reported from time to time by Mr. George Albu and the Manager, continues to be of an entirely satisfactory character.

By order of the Board,

STUART JAMES HOGG, Secretary.

EXTRACTS FROM MR. DENNY'S REPORTS.

5th December, 1898 :-

"The Minn.—The development is steadily advancing. In the Central Section the Main Shaft has reached the 8th level, the Station is now being cut. At the 7th level the drives east and west have been started on the Main Reef. The tendency evidently in these lower levels is to find a thicker body of ore than in the upper levels; also the shoots are widening out, so that it may be expected that the payable tonnage on this reef will be considerably increased. The leaders in this section have, so far, received no particular attention below the 2nd level; here on the leaders east of the shaft, the Manager is driving on what is called the Intermediate Leader series—that is, a series lying about from 30 to 40 feet from the Main Reef. The values obtained so far show a grade of from 14 to 15 dwts., over a thickness of 45 inches. This series is correlated with the best leaders in the Eastern section, tending to prove their continuity throughout the property. In the Eastern section the leaders are showing no variation in the big values last reported. From the No. 5 'B' Shaft two drives are running on leaders, one in a series about 16 feet from the Main Reef, the other on one between 30 and 40 feet."

"In the Cross-cut from the 2nd level, 5 'A' Shaft, the leaders have just

"In the Cross-cut from the 2nd level, 5 'A' Shaft, the leaders have just been intersected, and the assays show very payable results. I panned several pieces of ore from the leader, when last at the mine, and was surprised at the coarseness of the gold. When milling a fair proportion of rock from this section inside amalgamation in the battery will probably be found advisable, as a large proportion of this coarse gold would remain in

12th December, 1898 :-

"The following assays have been obtained from a cross-cut made at the top of a rise west of the No. 5 'A' Shaft:—

Leader in footwall, 31-in. reef, assay 638'o dwts., equal 2,233'o Assay inches.

99		7-in. waste					
99		2-in, reef	**	22'5	9.9	45'0	99
39		7-in. waste					
**		3-in. reef	11	69.5	99	208'5	0.9
99		13-in. waste					
***		5-in. reef	23	13.0	93	90 .	99
39		18-in. waste					
33		6-in. reef	*1	38.2	. 39	231.0	9.9
mn 1 1							
Thickness	**	644-in.				2807°5	93
	2	Sor's				-	
	-,	807'5 = 43'5 dw	ts.				

Average over the whole thickness of 642-in.43'5 dwts.

This, it is needless to point out, is a remarkable result, which, although not by any means indicating a working average, shows the possibility of taking a payable stope of 5 feet in thickness on the leaders. Should our further development upon the zeparate series prove as fitvourable in this respect, then the enormously increased tonnage per claim above that originally estimated is very obvious."

19th December, 1898 :-

"Hereunder I briefly summarise the most recent assay values upon the Eastern and Central Sections of this property. I have not made any summary upon the Western Section ground, for the reason that the development there is almost entirely from crosscuts, and therefore no regular sampling has been done. The crosscut samples, however, indicate that in the No.: Mine particularly both the footwall and hanging wall series of leaders are payable, as well as patches of main reef. That is to say, the Mine will yield at some points payable ore from three separate reef bodies. The grade of the leaders may be taken as about 16-dwts, assay in the Mine. Such a value on a 48-in, stope, with careful sorting, should give a yield of 40s, per ton. The main reef is very erratic. Within the rich patches the grade is very high; but these patches are very local, and taking a proportion of poor ore with the good, which will be inevitable, owing to the nature of the gold occurrence, I do not think the main reef will yield more than from 26s. to 30s. recovery. than from 28s, to 30s. recovery.

"In the No. 2 Mine the conditions are similar to No. 1, only that there will probably be a greater proportion of payable main reef.

will probably be a greater proportion of payable main reef.

"Your Manager is at present busily engaged in the preparation of new stopes in the various sections of the Mine. At some points it will be possible to stope the two leader series as one body, covering a width of 5 to 6 feet; at others, owing to the thickness of the intervening quartrite, they will be stoped separately. In the Eastern Section particularly there appears every probability that a 6-foot payable stope can be carried upon the leaders. In such a width there will of course be a very considerable percentage of waste, but with careful sorting at least from 50 per cent. to 60 per cent. of the larger pieces can be rejected, equivalent to from 30 per cent. to 35 per cent. of the total.

SUMMARY OF ASSAYS above referred to :-

Eastern Section :-

MAIN REEF LEADER:

.. 46'4 inches. .. 44s. per ton. MAIN REEF: .. 16'05 dwts. per ton. MAIN REEF. NO. 6A SHAFT: .. 30 inches.
.. 11'7 dwts. per ton.
.. 29'4s. per ton. Central Section :-MAIN REEF:

.. 14'05 dwts. per ton.

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